THE
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ART. I. *Asiatic Researches*, or Transactions of the Society instituted in Bengal, for inquiring into the History and Antiquities, the Arts, Sciences, and Literature of Asia. Vol. V. Printed verbatim from the Calcutta Edition. 8vo. pp. 440. 10s. 6d. Boards. Sewell, &c. 1799.

THE progressive inquiries of our countrymen in Asia continue to attract, and to deserve, the approbation of the learned throughout Europe. Their local situation, however, naturally draws their attention more to the observation of manners, customs, religious opinions, and historic researches, than to the discussion of topics strictly scientific; and as their transactions, therefore, do not so readily admit of the arrangement which we are accustomed to adopt, in reviewing the publications of learned bodies, we shall now consider the various papers in the order in which they occur, in the edition before us.

Historical Remarks on the Coast of Malabar, with some Description of the Manners of its Inhabitants; by Jonathan Duncan, Esq.

According to the legendary traditions of the natives, the fertile region, stretching from the bottom of the Ghaut mountains to the west, was obtained by the retrocession of the sea about 2300 years ago. The nature of the soil, and the quantity of sand, oyster shells, and other fragments, found in making deep excavations, in some measure confirm this account of its origin. It continued dependent on the kingdom of Chaldesh, in the southern Carnatic, (the sovereign of which governed it by a viceroy,) till Shermanu Permalu, about 1000 years ago, threw off his allegiance, and successfully withstood the attempts made to reduce him. The catastrophe of this extraordinary person is involved in great obscurity: but the æra is not a little remarkable, as the modern princes of the western peninsula date their ancestor's acquisition of sovereignty from that period, and in virtue of grants previous to his voluntary abdication. At this time, too, the casts of the natives underwent regulation,

and have been maintained ever since with the following distinctions; (though Governor Duncan informs us that the number of Mohammedans exceeds that of Hindus;) 1st Namburi Brahmans, 2d Nayrs, (these correspond with the Ketry in the rest of Hindustan,) 3d Teer, (these are the Vaisyia,) 4th Malere, 5th Polere (these must be the Sudra). The Teers are cultivators of the soil, but freemen. The Maleres are musicians and conjurors, and also freemen. The Poleres, or Poliars, are bondsmen, attached to the soil in the lower part of Malabar; and whose touch is fatal to the purity of the highest order.

After Permalu had bestowed the whole of his dominions in donations, he was asked for some provisions by a person of the cow-herd cast; and having now nothing else to give, 'he made a grant to him of the very narrow limits of his own place of abode at Calicut, and authorised him to extend his own dominions by arms over as much of the country as he should find desirable.' The Portuguese, on their arrival, met with a descendant of this cow-herd in possession of an opulent kingdom, with the title of *Zamorin;* and his successors still enjoy a portion of their former power, in the city and environs of Calicut. Anterior to the æra of Perumal, the Nestorian sectaries had diffused the doctrines of christianity on these coasts. 'The mode of succession, that has time out of mind been established among the princes of Malabar, is not, as in the rest of India, in favor of their own sons and children, but of their brethren in the female line, and of the sons of their sisters; who do not marry according to the usually received sense of that term in other parts of the world, but form connections of a longer or shorter duration, according to the choice of the parties, for the most part with Brahmans, by whom are thus propagated the heirs to all the Malabar principalities: without, however, the reputed fathers having, or pretending to, any paternal claim to the children of these transitory engagements.' This regulation, obviously dictated by a desire of retaining the succession in one race, (a point certain with respect to the issue of females, and only probable in that of males,) is not more extraordinary in itself, than in the circumstance that it has never been infringed by the efforts of the reigning prince, in favor of his own children—Among certain classes of the lower order, it is customary for one woman to have several husbands; and 'sometimes two, three, four, or more brothers cohabit with one woman. The child, or children, who are the offspring of this connection, inherit the property of the whole fraternity.' It appears uncertain whether this practice ever extended to the Nayrs, or military cast.

This country was almost wholly conquered by Hyder, and retained in subjugation by Tippu, favoured by its numerous Mohammedan inhabitants, but frequently opposed by the efforts of the Hindus to restore their native princes. Their repeated insurrections had determined the Sultan either to effect their extirpation, or their conversion to Islamism; and this diabolical resolution was only interrupted by the war with the English East India Company, which terminated by his cession of the greater part of the Malabar territories; since which time, the Zamorin and all the other Rajahs have returned to their districts, which they rule in subordination to the Company's government.

An Account of Two Fakirs, with their Portraits; by Jonathan Duncan, Esq.

Purana Puri, the first of these Fakirs, is certainly one of the most extraordinary travellers of the present age; and when it is recollected that his journeys were performed on foot, and with his arms and hands in a fixed position above his head, (an attitude constituting the penance which he has chosen for himself,) they cannot be considered without astonishment.—He is a native of Canuj; and, withdrawing from his father's house at nine years of age, he soon afterward became a faquir, and placed his arms in the position which they have ever since retained. From Allahabad he proceeded by Aurungabad, Puna, and Cochin, to Ramisser, a celebrated place of devotion at the extremity of the Indian peninsula; whence he returned by the eastern coast to Jaggernat. Going again to Ramisser, he crossed over into Ceylon; and he mentions several places on that island, venerated by Hindus. Hence he went to Malacca, and returned by sea to Cochin; whence he travelled along the west coast, and continued in a northerly direction till he crossed the Attoc, and then turned easterly to Hurdwar, where the Ganges enters the plains of Hindustan. From this place of devotion, he again departed in a westerly direction, through the upper parts of the Penjab to Cabul, and thence to Bamian; 'where he mentions with admiration the number of statues that still exist, though the place itself has been long deserted by its inhabitants.' He now proceeded to Asterabad, on the borders of the Caspian Sea; and to the "flaming mouth," being a spot in the neighbourhood of Bacu, whence fire issues. Here embarking on the Caspian, he went to Astracan, and thence to Moscow. Here his course terminated in this direction; and, returning to Astracan, he recrossed the Caspian, travelled to Ispahan, Shiraz, and Basora; whence proceeding to Muscat, he embarked for India. On his return from a second voyage to Arabia, he journeyed

to Balkh, where he found some Hindus, to Bokhara, and to Samarcand, which he describes as a large city; and thence he arrived, after ten days' journey, at Badoxshan in Tartary; in the hills around which, rubies are found. Here turning south, he visited Casmir and Nepal; whence he proceeded into Thibet, to the respective seats of the Dalai and Tisu Lama; and prosecuted his journey northwards till he reached the Mána Saravora, a lake six days' journey in circumference, whence flow the Brahmaputra, Surju, and Sutlij rivers. On his return, he was charged by the Lama with dispatches for Mr. Hastings; who conferred a small village, in free tenure, on this remarkable pilgrim.

The penance of the second Faquir is that of reclining on a bed of iron spikes. His travels were also very extensive; carried, as we suppose, by his disciples.

Enumeration of Indian Classes; by H. T. Colebrooke, Esq.

The permanent separation of classes, with hereditary professions assigned to each, is among the most remarkable institutions of India; and, though now less rigidly maintained than heretofore, it must still engage attention. According to some authorities, the four original tribes, and thirty-six mixed classes proceeding from intermarriages, constitute the body of the people. The Brahmans again are subdivided into ten classes, denominated from the countries in which their ancestors are supposed to have resided; some of them are said, in a Sanscrit work, to have migrated to China. For one of the mixed classes, the profession of a dancer is assigned; to another, that of an actor, which may prove the antiquity of dramatic representations in India; another has the occupation of rearing silk-worms, which militates against the opinion that silk was the exclusive produce of China before the reign of the Emperor Justinian; and, indeed, this is also refuted by the institutes of Menu. Not only is the rank of each class fixed, but that of each family in the same class; genealogy is made a particular study, and the greatest attention is given to regulate marriages according to the established rules.

Some Account of the Sculptures at Mahabalipûr, usually called the Seven Pagodas; by J. Goldingham, Esq.

These sculptures have been previously described by Mr. Chambers, in the second volume of this work. Mr. Goldingham has subjoined to his account a copy of the inscriptions, which Mr. Chambers supposed to resemble the Palli character, used by the priests of Buddha, in Siam. They are not Devanagari, but we suspect them to be of the same kind with those which are translated by Capt. Wilford, in a subsequent article.

Account

Account of the Hindustani Horometry: by John Gilchrist, Esq.

During the equinoctial months, there are just thirty ghurris in the day, and thirty also in the night; each ghurri properly occupying a space at all times exactly equal to twenty-four of our minutes; and, as in India the artificial day commences with the dawn, and closes just after sunset, it becomes necessary to make the puhurs or watches contract and expand occasionally, in proportion to the length of the day, and to the consequent shortness of the night, by admitting a greater or smaller number of ghurris into these grand diurnal and nocturnal divisions alternately. The summer solstitial day will, therefore, consist of thirty-four ghurris, and the night of twenty-six only, and *vice versâ:* but, what is most singular in the Indian horometry, their ghurris are unequally distributed among the day and night watches, the former varying from six to nine in the latter, which are thus prevented from any definite co-incidence with our time; except about the equinoctial period only, when one puhur nearly corresponds with three English hours. The apparatus with which the hours are measured and announced, consists of a shallow bell-metal pan, suspended so as to be easily struck with a wooden mallet by the ghurriali; who thus strikes the ghurris as they pass, and which he learns from an empty thin brass cup perforated at bottom, and placed on the surface of water in a large vessel, where nothing can disturb it, while the water gradually fills the cup, and sinks it in the space of one ghurri; to which this hour-cup has previously been adjusted astronomically by an astrolabe. Six or eight people are required to attend the establishment of a ghurri, so that none but wealthy men can afford to support one; they are convenient for the other inhabitants, as there are no public ghurris in all India.

On Indian Weights and Measures; by H. T. Colebrooke, Esq.

This useful paper appears to have cost considerable labor, and will tend to facilitate the study of the Puranas, by abridging that of others who may have occasion to ascertain the positive quantities denoted by terms now disused.

Of the City of Pegu, and the Temple of Shoemadoo Prow; by Captain Michael Symes.

To this city and temple we have adverted in our account of the author's embassy to Ava; in which publication this article is also inserted: See M. Rev. for June last, Art. I.

Description of the Tree called by the Burmas, Launzan; by Francis Buchanan, M.D.

The author's attention was directed to this tree from having seen in Bengal some of the seeds, which it was conceived might

be usefully employed to yield oil. On his arrival in Ava, however, he discovered that the tree was not a native of that country; he thinks that it will be found to constitute a new genus, but, never having seen it growing, nor the ripe fruit, his description must unavoidably be imperfect.

Specimen of the Language of the People inhabiting the Hills in the Vicinity of Bhagulpûr; by Major R. E. Roberts.

This singular people, insulated (as it would seem) in their barren hills, and surrounded by Hindus, to whom they bear no analogy in features, in manners, nor in religious opinions, present a curious phænomenon to the philosophic eye. The present specimen of their language suggests as little conformity in that particular.

An Account of the Discovery of Two Urns in the Vicinity of Benares; by Jonathan Duncan, Esq.

The innermost of these cases contained a few human bones, which Governor Duncan conceives to be the relics of a sectary of Buddha; as a statue of that deity was found in the same excavation, with an inscription, ascertaining that a temple had between 7 and 800 years ago been constructed there for his worship, a few miles to the northward of the present city of Benares.

Account of some antient Inscriptions.

These are, indeed, extremely curious. They were taken by Mr. Wales, a very ingenious artist, from Ellura and other excavations, on the western side of India, and sent to the society by Sir Charles Mallet. Captain Wilford would have found it impossible to translate them, but for the discovery of a book containing a great many antient alphabets, formerly in use in different parts of India. Four of them are written in an antient vernacular dialect; and the characters, though very different from those now in use, are nevertheless derived from the original or primæval Sanscrit, as the elements are the same. 'These relate to the wanderings of the Pandovas through forests and uninhabited places. They were precluded by agreement from conversing with mankind; but their friends and relations, Vidura and Vyasa, contrived to convey to them such information and intelligence as they deemed necessary for their safety. This they did by writing short and obscure sentences on rocks or stones in the wilderness, and in characters previously agreed upon between them.' The Pandits, to whom Captain Wilford shewed them, insisted that these were the identical inscriptions written by the friends of the Pandovas, so many centuries ago. They at least prove that

that the wonderful excavations and sculptures of the west of India relate to the Hindu mythology.—Two inscriptions, in a Devanagari character, relate to the worship of Buddha; these are in Sanscrit, and, appearing in somewhat of a more modern dress, corroborate the received opinions respecting the time of his appearance.

Observations on the Alphabetical System of the Language of Ava and Aracan; by Captain John Towers.

Neither this language, nor the character, appears to bear any analogy to the Sanscrit, or Devanagari; yet it is singular to find the letters arranged in the same order. Captain Towers thinks that there is no room to doubt that the Siamese have one common language and religion with the Burmans and Peguvians; and that in manners and customs the three nations form, as it were, one great family. The vocabulary exhibited by Dr. Buchanan does not confirm this supposed identity of language.

Some Account of the elastic Gum Vine of Prince of Wales's Island: and of Experiments made on the Milky Juice which it produces; with Hints respecting the useful Purposes to which it may be applied; by J. Hawison, Esq.

A Botanical Description of Urceola elastica, or Caout-chouc Vine of Sumatra and Pulo-penang; with an Account of the Properties of its inspissated juice compared with those of the American Caoutchouc; by W. Roxburgh, M.D.

Mr. Hawison accidentally discovered that the milk, which exuded from an incision of a creeping plant on Prince of Wales's island, became, after having coagulated, the substance called caout-chouc, or Indian rubber. He formed it on moulds when in a liquid state, for boots, gloves, and other purposes.—Dr. Roxburgh has added a description of the plant, and repeated the experiments of M. Berniard with nearly similar results; though the opinion of the latter, that caout-chouc was a production of art, seems now completely refuted.

Some Account of the Astronomical Labours of Jayasingha, Rajah of Ambher, or Jayanagar; by W. Hunter, Esq.

This illustrious prince, not less distinguished by his extensive knowlege than his hereditary rank, was born in the year 1693. He attached himself particularly to mathematical sciences; and his reputation for skill in them stood so high, that he was chosen by the Emperor Mohammed Shah to reform the calendar, which, from the inaccuracy of the existing tables, had ceased to correspond with the actual appearances of the heavens. Jayasingha undertook the task; and

constructed a new set of tables; which, in honour of the reigning prince, he named " Yij Mohammed Shahi." By these, almanacks are formed at Delhi, and all astronomical calculations are made at the present time. He constructed an observatory at Delhi, another at Benares, at Mat'hura, and at Oujin. He dispatched Padre Manuel to Europe, to procure the astronomical tables then used, who seems to have furnished him with those of De la Hire. Mr. Hunter saw, in the possession of a grandson of one of his pandits, ' translations into Sanscrit of several European works, executed under the orders of Jayasingha; particularly Euclid's Elements, with the Treatises of Plain and Spherical Trigonometry, and on the Construction and Use of Logarithms, which are annexed to Cunn's, or Commandine's, edition. In this translation, the inventor is called Don Juan Napier, an additional presumption that Jayasingha's European astronomers were of the Portuguese nation.'

Description of a Species of Melae, an Insect of the First, or Coleopterous Order, in the Linnean System: found in all Parts of Bengal, Bahar, and Oude; and possessing all the Properties of the Spanish Blistering Fly, or Melae Vesicatorius: by Capt. Hardwicke.

In this insect, Capt. Hardwicke seems to have discovered an useful addition to the Asiatic Materia Medica. In various trials as a substitute for the Spanish fly, the application was found to succeed, though it is probably less active than the latter when in a perfect state of preservation.

A comparative Vocabulary of some of the Languages spoken in the Burman Empire: by Francis Buchanan, M.D.

The author of this paper accompanied Major Symes on his embassy to the court of Ava, and paid much attention to the geography and history, civil and natural, of the peninsula beyond the Ganges. We extract a few of his introductory remarks:

' To judge from external appearance, that is to say, from shape, size and feature, there is one very extensive nation that inhabits the east of Asia. It includes the eastern and western Tartars of the Chinese authors, the Calmucs, the Chinese, the Japanese, the Malays, and other tribes inhabiting what is called the peninsula of India beyond the Ganges; and the islands to the south-east of this, as far at least as New Guinea. This, however, is speaking in a very general sense, many foreign races being intermixed with the nation, and, perhaps, many tribes belonging to it being scattered beyond the limits above-mentioned. This nation may be distinguished by a short, squat, robust, fleshy stature, and by features highly different from those of an European. The face is somewhat in the shape of a lozenge, the forehead and chin being sharpened, whilst at the cheek-bones it is very broad. The eyebrows, or supercillary ridges, in this nation, project

project very little, and the eyes are very narrow, and placed rather obliquely in the head, the external angles being the highest. The nose is very small, but has not, like that of the negro, the appearance of having been flattened; and the apertures of the nostrils, which in the European are linear and parallel, in them are nearly circular and divergent: for the *septum narium* being much thickest towards the face, places them entirely out of the parallel line. The mouths of this nation are in general well shaped; their hair is harsh, lank, and black. Those of them that live even in the warmest climates, do not obtain the deep hue of the negro or Hindu; nor do such of them as live in the coldest countries, acquire the clear bloom of the European.

'In adventitious circumstances, such as laws, customs, government, political maxims, religion and literature, there is also a strong resemblance among the different states composing this great nation; but it is very surprising that a wonderful difference of language should prevail. Language, of all the adventitious circumstances, is the surest guide in tracing the migrations and connections of nations; and how in a nation, which bears such strong marks of being one, radically the same, languages totally different should prevail, I cannot, at present, pretend to conjecture.'

Bodily configuration excepted, we doubt whether there be any strong similarity between many of the nations here indicated: if their religion be the same, it originated in Hindustan among a different people; as for their literature, who is acquainted with it?

On the Chronology of the Hindus: by Capt. Francis Wilford.

In Captain Wilford's opinion, the exaggerated system of chronology maintained by the Hindus, at this day, was constructed since the time of Megasthenes. This Persian visited India about 300 years before Christ; and, according to him, the Hindus carried their history back 5042 years, and he remarks a correspondence between their early traditions and those of the Jews. On the other hand, Alhumazar, whose researches into their antiquities were made in the 9th century, found the present chronological system then in use; its origin, consequently, must have been during the interval. Captain Wilford considers the Puranas as a modern compilation from valuable materials, which it is to be feared no longer exist. They relate the history of Chandra Gupta; and if he be the Sandrocottus, to whom Megasthenes was deputed on an embassy, the Puranas must be still more modern, and not the productions of Vyasa; whose father, according to the result of astronomical observations, lived 1391 years before the Christian æra.—We may here be permitted to remark that, though the whole of the Puranas be attributed by the modern Hindus to Vyasa, the impossibility of the fact would be a sufficient refutation without the assistance of this anachronism. There is no

reason

reason for supposing them to be contemporaneous productions; some of them may have been written by Vyasa, others since the reign of Alexander the Great; though, judging from their obsolete style compared with that of the poets at the court of Vicramadityu, all previously to the reign of that prince, who flourished before the birth of our Saviour. Let us see how the bed of Procustes is now to operate on the body of this gigantic system.

Captain Wilford pays no attention to the Jugas, or ages, of the Hindus. Of the seven Menus who governed the world, six were antediluvian patriarchs, and the seventh was Noah. The first of them, Swayambhuvo, is called also Adim, or the *first* man; his consort, Iva, or like I, that is, Isa. Our readers will recollect the legend which states the seventh Menu, or Satyavrata, to have made his escape in an ark from a flood, which destroyed the whole human race, except the pious prince himself, the seven Risis, and their several wives.—From this period, Captain Wilford has compiled or extracted a chronological table, which descends to the reign of Chandra Gupta, or Sandrocottus; and he exhibits it as the only genuine chronological record of Indian history that has hitherto come to his knowlege. Of his ability, accuracy, and candor, we can speak from thorough conviction; and we consider it as a valuable historical document.

To the sacred isles in the west, by which appellation Captain Wilford understands Great Britain and Ireland, we find several allusions, and some of a very singular nature *.

'During the reign of the fourth Menu, (says Capt. W.) occurred the famous war between the elephants and crocodiles, which, in the Puranas, is asserted to have happened in the Sacred Isles of the West. What could give rise to such an extravagant tale I cannot determine, but some obvious traces of it still remain in these sacred isles, for almost every lake in Wales has a strange story attached to it, of battles fought there between an ox and a beaver, both of an uncommon size. The churning of the ocean is positively declared to have happened in the white sea, which surrounds the Sacred Isles of the West. The White Island, (Albion,) in Sanscrit Sweta Dwip, is as famous in the East as it is in the West. It may seem strange, that islands so remote should be known to the Puranics; but the truth is, that the Vedas were not originally made known to mankind in India. The Brahmans themselves acknowledge that they are not natives of India, but that they descended into the plains of Hindustan through the pass of Heridwar. The old continent is well described in the Puranas, but more particularly the countries in which the Vedas were made public; and in which the doctrine they contain flourished for a long time. Accordingly, the Sacred Isles in the

* See also the last Review, p. 261.

West

West, the countries bordering on the Nile, and, last of all, India, are better and more minutely described than any other country. Atri, called Edris, and Idris, in the countries to the west of India, carried the Vedas from the abode of the gods on the summit of Meru, first, to the sacred Isle; thence to the banks of the Nile; and, lastly, to the borders of India. The place of his abode, whilst in the Sacred Isles, became afterwards a famous place of worship under the name of Atri-st'han, the place or seat of Atri, or Edris. It is often mentioned in the Puranas, and described to be on a high mountain, not far from the sea-shore.'

On this passage, we have only to observe that Edris, or the instructor, is the name by which the Mohammedans mention Enoch. It is much to be lamented that Captain Wilford has not published his reasons for thinking that these islands were those called *Sacred* by the Puranics. His hypothesis seems to imply an emigration from this country to India; the converse of this proposition is maintained by General Vallancey; and we perceive little besides conjecture adduced by either.

We find, in this essay, an account from the Puranas of the reign of Chandra Gupta, sufficiently corresponding with that which is given by the Greeks respecting Sandrocottus. Captain Wilford, however, still maintains that his capital, the famed Palibothra, was situated opposite to the junction of the Cusi with the Ganges; and that the town of Raj-mehal was one of its suburbs.—This paper manifests the extensive erudition and ingenuity of its writer, as strongly as its predecessors have done: but, like them also, it displays hypotheses too readily adopted.

Remarks on the Names of the Cabirian Deities, and on some Words used in the Mysteries of Eleusis; by the Same.

According to Mnaseas, as cited by the scholiast of Apollonius Rhodius, the names of the Cabirian gods were Axieros, or Ceres, or the Earth; Axiocersa, or Proserpine; Axiocersos, or Pluto; to whom they add a fourth, called Casmillus, the same with the infernal Mercury. These names, Captain Wilford finds, with little variation, in a legend extracted from the Adhuta-cosa.—The Cabiri he supposes to be the Cuberas, a tribe of inferior deities, possessed of immense riches, and of the places in which gems and precious metals are found.—At the conclusion of the mysteries of Eleusis, the congregation was dismissed in these words, " Conx, om, pax:" which are pure Sanscrit, and used to this day by Brahmans at the conclusion of religious rites.

Account of the Pagoda at Perwattum; by Captain Mackenzie.

This seems to be a temple of Siva, worshipped under the name of Mallecarji; with the usual symbol, the phallus. It is situated

situated near to the south bank of the river Crisna, in a wild tract of country, almost uninhabited.

Remarks on the principal Æras and Dates of the antient Hindus; by Mr. John Bentley.

This gentleman considers the Jugas, Manwantaras, and Calpas of the Hindus, to be periods invented for astronomical purposes; while the Brahmans have devised others for their history and poetry, nominally the same, but essentially different in point of duration: one astronomic year being equal to 1000 poetic years. The modern Hindus, unacquainted with this distinction, consider the periods mentioned in their Puranas as astronomic, and hence the cause of the exaggeration and perplexity of their chronological system. A poetic Manwantara is thought by Mr. Bentley to comprise the natural life of a Menu or patriarch; thus the seventh Manwantara continued during the life-time of Noah, and so of the rest; and he exhibits several tables drawn up in conformity with the foregoing principles, or rather conjectures.

On the Religious Ceremonies of the Hindus, and of the Brahmans especially; by H. T. Colebrooke, Esq.

The ritual used by the Brahmans, in performing their morning and evening ablutions, and previously to the study of the Vedas, is given in this paper, with a perspicuous commentary.

The Rudhiradhyaya, or Sanguinary Chapter, translated from the Calica Puran; by W. C. Blaquiere, Esq.

The goddess Calica possesses the attributes of the Grecian Hecate; and Mr. Blaquiere was induced to investigate the fact of human sacrifices being performed to this terrible deity, by an examination of the Purana which bears her name: "Birds, tortoises, alligators, fish, nine species of wild animals, buffaloes, bulls, he-goats, ichneumons, wild boars, rhinoceroses, antelopes, guanas, reindeers, lions, tygers, men, and blood drawn from the offerer's own body, are looked upon as proper oblations to the goddess Chandica." By reindeer, we suspect, is meant the nilgaw, a species of elk. We find, however, the following injunction afterward; "where the sacrifice of lions, of tygers, or of the human species is required, let the three first classes act thus: having formed the image of the lion, tyger, or human shape with butter, paste, or barley-meal, let them sacrifice the same as if a living victim, the axe being first invoked by the text "nomo." That text is as follows: "Cali! Cali! O horrid-toothed goddess; eat, cut, destroy all the malignant; cut with this axe; bind, bind, seize, seize; drink blood, tear, tear; secure, secure; salutations to Cali!" —Unwilling human victims are expressly prohibited.

An

An Account of the Pearl Fishery in the Gulph of Manar, in March and April 1797; by Henry J. Le Beck, Esq.

This fishery begins about the middle of February, and ends in April. It is carried on for three or four successive years, till the whole banks have been fished, when they are left to recover; which usually requires fourteen years. The farmer of the fishery, in 1797, paid between 2 and 300,000 pagodas for his privilege. Conchologists will find some interesting particulars concerning the pearl fish, in this paper.

Astronomical Observations made in the Upper Provinces of Hindustan; by W. Hunter, Esq.

For these we must refer to the work itself; they consist of observations of latitude, and of the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites

In the perusal of this volume of the researches of the Asiatic Society, Orientalists will regret the loss of the elegant and accurate views of particular subjects, comprehended in the annual discourses of the learned founder; and they will discover that his standard of orthography is somewhat injudiciously neglected in several communications: but they will observe, with real pleasure, that the inquiries have been pursued with such successful diligence, as to produce a volume perhaps more replete with curious and instructive information, than any of its predecessors.

Ham.n

ART. II. *A Treatise on the Police of the Metropolis;* containing a Detail of the various Crimes and Misdemeanors by which Public and Private Property and Security are, at present, injured and endangered: and suggesting Remedies for their Prevention. The Sixth Edition, corrected and considerably enlarged. By P. Colquhoun, LL. D. Acting as a Magistrate for the Counties of Middlesex, Surrey, Kent, and Essex,—for the City and Liberty of Westminster, and for the Liberty of the Tower of London. 8vo. pp. 680. 10s. 6d. Boards. Mawman. 1800.

THE author of this useful and curious work defines *Police* to be the system of regulations used in any state for the *Prevention* and *Detection* of *Crimes*, and those other functions which relate to the well-ordering and comfort of civil society. According to this idea of Police, it may very truly be said that it is in this country of very novel institution; and the backwardness of it is manifest in the insecurity not of property only, but it may be said of even life itself;—in the public immorality of our people, and in the incredible prevalence and impunity of fraud and depredation.

Why police, in this sense of the word, should have been so neglected in a country which, for so many ages, has been

distinguished from other European nations by unremitted attention to the acquisition and security of political liberty, is not perhaps easily to be explained; since it is indisputable that liberty itself is a blessing of subordinate value, when unaccompanied by those regulations which protect property and life from the violations to which both are liable in society from the fraud, malice, and oppression of individuals. It should seem, indeed, as if that very jealousy of the encroachments of power and prerogative, which guards the liberty of a people against the arbitrary will of their rulers, were in some measure incompatible with those restrictions which a well-regulated police has been found to require. Experience appears to warrant this idea: since it is under the most arbitrary and despotic governments, that the system of internal police has been carried to the highest degree of perfection.

Whether this notion be true or false; whether it be that we have tamed that high spirit of freedom, which prefers the liability to private risk and injury to the chance of losing a particle of public liberty; or whether it be that we have become wiser than our ancestors, and have discovered that the restrictions of a more severe police are not really inconsistent with the highest degree of rational freedom; it is certain that we have at length begun to think seriously of means of restraining, by *prevention* rather than by *punishment*, that spirit of cheating, rapine, and violence, which in large societies will always be created by the wants and the passions of men. More has been done within the last four or five years, in this way, than had been effected perhaps for a century before, and, from the zeal with which improvements of this nature have been begun by the legislature, there is reason for hoping that they will be carried to a point of excellence yet very remote.

For those advances which have already been made, as well as for those which we may yet attempt, we are greatly indebted to the intelligent and active labours of the author of the work before us. Four years have now elapsed since the first edition of his "*Police of the Metropolis*" appeared; and though he then disclosed details of fraud, depredation, and general delinquency, which must have astonished the public, yet the most attentive consideration of the principles and the result of his calculations, combined with the experience of those four years, instead of convicting Mr. Colquhoun of error or exaggeration in his estimate of the general mass of crimes, seems fully to have confirmed it.

The present edition, like that which we before noticed, (see M. Rev. vol. xx. N. S. p. 408.) contains a general view of the existing Imperfections in our Police—of the System of Punish-

ments,

ments—of the Cause and Progress of Small Thefts—of Burglaries and Highway Robberies—of Cheats and Swindlers—of Gaming and the Lottery—of Counterfeit Coining—of Plunder on the River Thames—of Plunder in the Dock-Yards—of the Receivers of Stolen Goods—of the Origin of criminal Offences—of Female Prostitution—of the State of the Poor—of the Detection and Prosecution of Offenders. It treats of the present criminal police of the Metropolis, and proposes a new one; it gives a general view of the present municipal institutions of the city of London, and terminates by a recapitulation.—These interesting topics were all included in the edition of 1796: but the present is rendered more valuable than that former one, by the introduction of new official facts, and by authentic details, calculated to elucidate and explain the general system first submitted by the author to the public. As it is evident that such additions as these must greatly enhance the value of a work originally challenging high commendation, it would be superfluous in us to repeat the favourable opinion which we have formerly pronounced on this interesting and useful performance. We shall therefore conclude by transcribing the result of the several statements here given, respecting the municipal institutions of the metropolis; with some observations by the author on the expence of legal proceedings, which seem to be highly deserving of attention:

'It appears from the preceding Statements, that there are in the Metropolis

9	Supreme Courts; to which are attached	270 officers *
4	Ecclesiastical Courts	54 do.
18	Inferior Courts for small Debts	146 do.
1	Court of Oyer and Terminer, and Gaol Delivery	27 do.
4	Courts of General and Quarter Sessions of the Peace	46 do.
10	Courts and Petty Sessions for Purposes of Police	190 Do.
5	Coroners' Courts	20 Do.
		753
	King's Serjeants, Attorney and Solicitor General, and King's Advocate	8
	Serjeants at Law	14
	Doctors of Law	14
	King's Counsel	25
	Carried forward	814

'* See for some further particulars the 27th Report of the Finance Committee.'

Masters

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	Carried forward	814

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Masters

Brought forwards	814
Masters in Chancery - -	10
Barristers at Law - -	400
Special Pleaders - - -	50
Proctors in Doctor's Commons -	50
Conveyancers - -	40
Attorneys at Law in the different Courts	1,900
Clerks, Assistants, and others, estimated at	3,700
Notaries Public - -	36
Total about	7000

'It is impossible to contemplate this view of a very interesting subject, without being forcibly struck with the vast extent of the wealth and commercial intercourse of the country, which furnish advantageous employment for such a multitude of individuals in one particular profession. Every good man, and every lover of his country, must anxiously wish that the advantages may be reciprocal; and that men of talents, integrity, and ability, in the profession of the law, while they extend their aid to the removal of those evils which are a reproach to the criminal jurisprudence of the country, would also assist in procuring the removal of the inconveniences at present felt in the recovery of small debts. This is peculiarly irksome to every well-disposed person, who, in the course of business, having transactions with the mass of mankind, cannot avoid frequently meeting with bad or litigious characters, by whom disputes are unavoidably generated.

'According to the prevailing System, if the debt exceeds 40s. the action may be brought in a superior court, where, if contested or defended, the expence, at the lowest computation, must be upwards of fifty pounds. Prudent men, under such circumstances, will forego a just claim upon another, or make up a false one upon themselves, as by far the least of two evils, in all cases where they come in contact with designing and bad people; and hence it is, that the worthless part of mankind, availing themselves in *Civil*, as others do in *Criminal Cases*, of the imperfections of the Law, forge these defects into a rod of oppression, either to defraud the honest part of the Community of a just right, or to create fraudulent demands, where no right attaches; merely because those miscreants know that an action at Law even for 20*l.* cannot either be prosecuted or defended, without sinking three times the amount in Law expences; besides the loss of time, which is still more valuable to men in business.

'To convince the reader that this observation is not hazarded on weak grounds, and that the evil is so great as to cry aloud for a remedy, it is only necessary to state, that in the county of Middlesex alone, in the year 1793, the number of bailable writs and executions, for debts from *Ten* to *Twenty* pounds, amounted to no less than 5,719, and the aggregate amount of the debts sued for was the sum of £.81,791.

'It will scarcely be credited, *although it is most unquestionably true*, that the mere costs of these actions, although made up, and not defended at all, would amount to 68,728*l.*—And if defended, the aggregate

gregate expence to recover 81,791 *l.* must be—(*strange and incredible as it may appear*), no less than 285,950 *l.* ! being considerably more than three times the amount of the debts sued for.

'The mind is lost in astonishment at the contemplation of a circumstance, marking, in so strong a degree, the deficiency of this important branch of the jurisprudence of the country.

'Through this new medium we discover one of the many causes of the increase of crimes.—And hence that caution which men in business are compelled to exercise (especially in the Metropolis,) to avoid transactions with those who are supposed to be devoid of principle.

'Whenever the Laws cannot be promptly executed, at any expence, that will not restrain the worthy and useful part of the Community from the following up their just rights, bad men will multiply. The morals of the people will become more and more corrupted, and the best interests of the State will be endangered.

'In a political, as well as in a moral point of view, it is an evil that should not be suffered to exist; especially when it can be demonstrated, that a remedy may be applied, without affecting the pecuniary interest of the more reputable part of the Profession of the Law, while it would unquestionably produce a more general diffusion of Emolument.

'If, instead of the various inferior Courts for the recovery of debts, (exclusive of the Courts of Conscience) which have been mentioned in this chapter, and which are of very limited use on account of appeals lying in all actions above 5 *l.*—the Justices, in General Sessions of the Peace, *'specially commissioned*, were to be empowered to hear and determine *finally, by a Jury*, all actions of debt under 50 *l.* and to tax the Costs *in proportion to the amount of the verdict*, great benefits would result to the Public. *At present, the rule is to allow the same costs for forty shillings as for ten thousand pounds !**—It depends only on the length of the pleadings, and not on the value of the action.'

Since

'* The following authentic table, divided into four Classes, will shew in forcible colours, the evils which arise from there being no distinction between the amount of the sum to be recovered in one action and another, in settling the costs. In the county of Middlesex, in the year 1793, the actions for recovering debts stood thus:

Classes.		Number of Writs	of which	Bailable.	Executions.	Costs of Actions undefended at 12l. each.	Costs of Actions defended at 50l. each.	Net Amount of Debts sued for.
						£.	£.	£.
1	from 10 to 20l.	5,719		4,066	753	68,728	285,950	81,791
2	20 to 30	2,267		1,878	389	21,090	113,350	85,675
3	30 to 100	4,367		2,492	1,875	52,404	238,350	237,358
4	£.100 & upw.	2,324		1,769	555	27,160	116,200	1,010,379
		14,677		11,105	3,572	169,382	753,850	1,385,203

Since the above passages were written, some amendments of this evil have taken place, by granting an extension of power to Courts of Conscience, respecting the amount of claims cognizable by them.—A *Treatise on the Commerce and Police of the River Thames* has lately appeared from the pen of this indefatigable magistrate; to which we hope soon to pay all due respect and attention.

Wall.

ART. III. *Observations on the Diseases of Seamen*, by Gilbert Blane, M. D. The Third Edition, with Corrections and Additions. 8vo. pp. 626. 8s. Boards. Murray and Co. 1799.

WE announced the first edition of this work with considerable approbation, and at some length, in our 74th vol. p. 221. It now comes under our consideration again, on account of the considerable additions made by the author.

The most material alteration which we observe is the introduction of a new chapter, on Ulcers. Here Dr. Blane endeavours to prove that ulcers are sometimes infectious, in a ship; and the directions which he gives are very judicious, though most of them have already appeared in other publications. Mr. Baynton's plan of treatment is properly noticed; and Dr. Blane, after having described it, gives the following summary account of its success:

'It is considered as a very judicious and ingenious practice, and extensive experience has already ascertained the great utility of it. It does not answer in the recent inflammatory and spreading state of scorbutic and infectious ulcers, nor in venereal, carious, nor cancerous cases. But in other cases there are ample testimonies of its success, from some of the most reputable surgeons of the fleet, and from the surgeons of the hospitals at Plymouth and Norman Cross, and it is a method daily gaining ground both in public and private practice.'

Under the article *Wounds*, we have met with some curious information respecting a subject which has never been fully explained, the *Wind of a Ball*:

'There is a singular species of accident to which engagements at sea are liable, called, perhaps improperly, *the wind of a ball*. In whatever manner it is accounted for, it is a fact, that a part is sometimes severely hurt, and even life destroyed, without any visible external injury or breach of the parts, nor any appearance of the body from whence the injury proceeded *. There were two instances

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'Thus it appears, that upwards of one million of money, in the 4th class, is recovered at considerably less than half the expence of 81,791*l.* in the first class.'

'* This is a fact which does not admit of doubt; but the manner in which the effect is here produced is a matter of conjecture. It

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stances in the last battle of a ball passing close to the stomach, and producing instant death. The one was a lieutenant of the Royal Oak, the other a common sailor of the Bedford. A man in another ship, in consequence of a ball passing close to his belly, remained without sense or motion for some time, and a large livid tumor arose on the part, but he recovered. I attended a man at the hospital at Barbadoes, who had the buttons of his trowsers carried off by a cannon ball, without any breach in the skin. The *pubis* was livid and swelled for some time after: he suffered exquisite pain from strangury, which seemed to proceed from a *paralysis* of the bladder, for he voided no urine without a catheter for near three months, after which time he recovered. I know a brave young officer * in the army, who had his epaulette carried off by a cannon ball at Charlestown, in consequence of which the shoulder and adjacent parts of the neck were affected for some time. A like accident happened to a marine officer in one of the late engagements; but in neither of these was the head materially affected, nor is it so apt to be affected in this way as the stomach. I never knew death the consequence of the wind of a ball on the head; though an officer † in the Sultan, at the battle of Grenada, was so stunned by a shot passing close to his temple, as to be insensible for some time, but he recovered entirely in a few hours ‡.

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is perhaps owing to the compression and tremor of the air in consequence of its resistance to the motion of the ball. We can also conceive, that, with regard to an yielding part, such as the stomach or abdomen, a body flying with great velocity may even, for a moment, displace a portion of it by passing through the same space, without any other mechanical injury than contusion, in a manner similar to what happens to two balls in the act of collision in philosophical experiments, made to illustrate the nature of elasticity. From a fact to be mentioned hereafter, of a bone being broken to pieces, though the integuments were not injured, and as one leg is not usually affected by the ball which breaks or carries off the other, it would appear that mere proximity is not sufficient to produce this effect, and that there must be some sort of contact. It is, perhaps, explicable as follows. It has been ascertained, that all balls and bullets, except those from rifled pieces, have a rotatory motion in their flight. It is evident, that this motion on one side of the ball will coincide with the direction of its flight, and the other will be in the opposite direction. Now if the latter side should come in contact with any part of the body, it is conceivable, that in place of carrying it away, it would roll over it, as it were, and only make a contusion. Some have attempted to account for these accidents by alleging, that they may proceed from a spent ball or obtuse splinter striking the part; but if this were the case, the offending body would drop upon the deck, and be perceived, which is not the case.'

' * The honourable Captain Fitzroy, now Lord Southampton.'

' † Colonel Markham.'

' ‡ Animals are affected by these accidents as well as men. A cow in the Duke was killed in one of the actions in April, by a double headed shot passing close to the small of her back.'

'In some cases the bones sustained a severe injury from accidents of this kind. Two instances of it have come to my knowledge: the one was an officer, who fell down during an engagement without any obvious cause. Upon examination, the thigh was found to be broken, and the limb was two inches shorter, which seemed to proceed from the bone being pulverized, as it were. There was no pain. The integuments were not in the least injured; so that this appears to have been what is called the wind of a ball, but what ought more properly, perhaps, to be termed the *brush* of a ball. In the other instance, two of the false ribs were fractured and dislocated, with very little visible affection of the skin, though the clothes were torn. This accident proved fatal.'

This publication certainly contains much useful matter, and may be perused with advantage, by all who are interested in preserving the health of our brave sailors.

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ART. IV. *The History and Antiquities of the County of Leicester.* By John Nichols, F.S.A. Edinb. and Perth, and Printer to the Society of Antiquaries of London. Vol. II. Part II. Containing Gartre Hundred. Folio. Demi, 2l. 12s. 6d. Royal, 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Nichols. 1798.

OF the preceding parts of this very laborious compilation, we have already taken notice*. The volume now before us deserves the same praise, and is intitled to the same character, which we then gave to those early divisions of the work. It consists of a similar extensive variety of important and unimportant matter, and displays equal industry in the compiler. It lays before the land-owners and inhabitants of Gartre hundred, (to which this portion of the work is confined,) a very minute account of the antiquities, the natural history, the population, the townships, the public buildings, the mansion-houses, the old families and their genealogy, the charitable and other institutions, of this part of the county; which will be acceptable to all whose connections with the hundred, arising from residence or the possession of property within it, excite a local interest or curiosity respecting its concerns.—To other readers,—not possessing that *aptitude* from situation to be pleased with long and petty details on such subjects,—the volume will probably not be found instructive and entertaining in proportion to its *necessarily* high price: but, though compilations of this kind cannot be considered as extremely interesting to the many, they furnish the philosophic historian and antiquary with materials which, in their hands, may assume a form and texture that shall fit them for an honourable niche in the Temple of Literature and Science.

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* See vol. xxi. New Series, p. 13.

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The author of a county history collects materials without much scrupulosity from every quarter that is likely to afford them; as well from obsolete and forgotten publications, as from those scattered and unpublished documents which he finds in private hands. The former is by much the most productive source of his information; and we have here abundant extracts from antiquated volumes, some of which are far from uninteresting. We select a paper relative to proceedings against *Witches*, so late as in the year 1616, thus introduced by Mr. Nichols:

'The following letter from alderman Robert Heyrick, of Leicester, to his brother Sir William, in the year 1616, relates to an extraordinary transaction which took place at Husbands Bosworth.

"Although we have bene greatly busyed this 4 or 5 days past, being syse tyme, and a busy syse speacylly about the araynment of a sort of woomen, Wytches, w^t^ 9 of them shal be executed at the gallows this fornone, for bewitching of a younge gentellman of the adge of 12 or 13 years old, beinge the soon of one Mr. Smythe, of Husbands Bosworth, brother to Mr. Henry Smythe, that made the booke which we call Mr. Smythe's Sarmons. Your man Sampson stays, and yt is to tedyous to write anny one thing unto you of the matter; and the examynacyons and finding out of the matter came to my hand in wryting just as I began your lettar. Only I will signifye unto you of the chyld's straunge fits, who was brought hythar of Sayturday last to be shewed to the Judges; and since his coming hither he hath had dyvars wonderful straundg fyts in the syght of all the greatest parsons here, as dyvars knyghts and ladies, and many othars of the bettar sort, most tereble to be tolld. Sir Henry Hastings hath doon what he colld to holld him in his fit; but he and another as strong as he could not hold him; yf he might have his arm at liberty, he woolld stryke himsellfe suche bloes on his brest, being in his shirt, that you myght here the sound of yt the length of a long chamber, soumtyms 50 bloes, soumtyms 100, yea soumtyms 2 or 300 bloes, that the least of them was able to stryke doune a strong man; and yet all he did to himself did him no hurt. 6 of the witches had 6 severall sperits, one in the lyknes of a hors, another like a dog, another a cat, another a pullemar, another a fishe, another a code, with whom every one of them tormented him: he woolld make soom syne according to the sperit; as, when the hors tormented him, he would whinny; when the cat tormented him, he would cry like a cat, &c. When he was in his fyt, they were soumtymes brought to him, and then they were chardged to speake sarten woords, and to name theare sperits, and one of them to speak yt aftar another; as thus: "I such a one chardge the hors, yf I be a wiche, that thou com forthe of the child." And then another by her sperit to doe the like; and so till all had doone. Yf anny of them woolld speake a woord contrary to that charm, he shold be myghtyly tormented; but, if he would speake as he had first directed them, at the end of the last he woolld fall out of his fit as quyetly as if one did lay him doune to slepe. For the rest,

I leave till it please God we meete. Leicester, the 18th of July, 1616, Your loving brother, ROBART HEYRICKE*."

'The execution of nine witches in one morning is a circumstance scarcely credible in these enlightened times. The same year, however, exhibits a similar prosecution against six other unhappy women.

"I received your letter yesterday, dated the 10th of October, 1616; for which I thank you hartely, for I thought yt long since I hard any thinge from you; for anny news I heare but from you I account it but uncertayne. I am desyrous to signefye unto you of the Witches, but it must be in my next; for they be but this day, as I am informed, examyned before Mr. Mair and the Justisis, and Docktor Lambe, in our Town-hall; and to-morrow I shall know the substaunce of the matter; and then you shall hear how the matter goes wt them. So, with my love and hartyest salvtatyons to yourself and my Lady doone, I leave you to the Most Highest. Leicester, the 15th of October. Your loving brother, ROBART HEYRICKE.

"Since the wryting of the above, the under sherive, by a warrant directed to the highe-sherive, hathe set the 5 witches at liberty; the sixt is ded in the gayle."

Of the original matter which this volume affords, it would be extremely difficult to give any just character; as it is scattered in detached portions through an immense mass of heterogeneous materials. Let the reader, therefore, be content with the following morsel; which relates to an antient annual custom at Hallaton in this hundred,

'A piece of land was many years ago given, the rents and profits of which the rector for the time being was to receive for his own use, on condition of providing two Hare-Pies, a quantity of Ale, and two dozen of Penny Loaves, to be scrambled for on Easter Monday annually, after divine service and a sermon preached. The land, during the open-field state, was called *Hare Crop Leys;* and when the inclosure took place in 1770, land was allotted to the rector in his allotment in lieu of the said Hare Crop Leys.

'The manner of scrambling is thus: two large Pies (which, instead of Hares, are now made of Veal and Bacon) are made in raised crusts at the rector's house; and, when baked, are cut into quarters or parts, and put into a sack; the Ale (now about two gallons) is put into two wooden bottles, without handles or strings to hold them by, the corks well thrust in, and cut off close to the bottle-mouths, and put into a sack also; the Penny Loaves are

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'* This is a striking addition to the many instances which might be produced of the credulity of the last age. One has already been given under Belvoir (Appendix, p. 69); and others may be seen in "British Topography," vol. i. pp. 311. 371*; 429; 467; vol. ii. pp. 26; 46; 52; 254; 672; 744. The earliest of these was in 1566; the latest in 1716. The greatest number that appear to have been executed at any one time was in 1645, when Mr. Lawes, an innocent aged clergyman of Brandeston, a cooper and his wife, and 15 other women, were all condemned and executed at Bury.'

quartered

quartered and put into a basket, which a man carries; as do two others the sacks; when the procession begins, consisting of men, women, and children.

'The spot appropriated for the scrambling for the Pies and Ale is about a quarter of a mile south of the town, a small oblong bank, 10 yards long and 6 wide; with a small old trench round it, and a circular hole in the centre; and is called *Hare-Pie Bank*. After they have left the town, the man with the bread walks towards the Bank; and, as he proceeds, at times throws the pieces of bread before him, which is eagerly caught by the boys which surround him, the bread being all distributed before they arrive at the spot destined for the scrambling for the Pies and Ale. As soon as the men with the sacks arrive at the Bank, the Pies and Ale are tumbled promiscuously out of the sacks into the hole in the centre, when a scene of noise and confusion takes place, and bloody noses and bruised fingers are often the consequence; one will seize a piece of the Pie, or a bottle of the Ale; a second will trip up his heels, and fall upon him; and a third perhaps seize and keep possession of the prize, until a fourth serves him the same; and so on, until four or five fellows agree to form a party, and assist each other in bearing away the wished for bottle to a convenient place, and there divide the spoil. The afternoon is spent in festivity, ringing of bells, fighting of cocks, quoits and such like exercises, by Hallaton and the neighbouring youth.'

Much of the high price of this work is made necessary by the great number of engravings with which it is embellished. In this volume they are very thickly strewed, and will certainly contribute materially to the gratification of the purchaser.

Another portion of this history has lately appeared: but w ehave not yet perused it.

Wall...

ART. V. *Memoirs of Mark Hildesley*, D. D. Lord Bishop of Sodor and Mann, and Master of Sherburn Hospital; under whose Auspices the Holy Scriptures were translated into the Manks Language. By the Rev. Weeden Butler. 8vo. pp. 700. 8s. Boards. Nichols, Robson, &c. 1799.

OF this large volume, about 100 pages only are occupied by Memoirs of Bishop Hildesley; the rest consist of a peculiarly extensive Appendix, containing a variety of matter, of which the most interesting is certainly the collection of the letters of this good man. As is the case with every other person to whose lot it has not fallen to act a distinguished part on the busy theatre of life, the account of Bishop Hildesley furnishes but few incidents to excite curiosity. He glided through the vale in an uniform and tranquil tenor, exemplifying every domestic and christian virtue, and displaying the interesting though not uncommon picture of a virtuous man pursuing his onward way, in humble and safe mediocrity. His history is

marked by nothing eventful or surprising; nor does it convey in the relation any ~~new novel~~ of life, or any very interesting combination of circumstances. ~~His history~~ may be given in a short compass.—He was born in 1698. ~~He~~ had been for some time before rector of Sittingbourne, and about the year 1710 became rector of *Houghton cum Witton;* nearly at the same period when his son commenced his education at the Charter-house in London, where he was contemporary with the learned Jortin. At nineteen years of age he was removed to Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated in 1720; and in 1724 he became master of arts. In October 1723, he was elected a fellow, and at the same time acted as steward of his college. On the 29th of March 1723, Lord Cobham appointed him one of his domestic chaplains. In 1724 he was nominated a preacher at Whitehall,—and from 1725 to 1729 he filled the curacy of Yelling in Huntingdonshire. In 1733-4, Mr. Hildesley was appointed chaplain to the famous Lord Bolingbroke; and we find him afterward (in 1742) chaplain to Viscount St. John. Previously to this period, he had been presented by his College to the vicarage of Hitchin in Hertfordshire, and in 1730-1 he married Miss Stoker, with whom he lived childless, though in great connubial happiness, for upwards of thirty years. Of his vicarage at Hitchin, the emoluments were scarcely sufficient to furnish a genteel competence; and he was therefore obliged to attempt the irksome task of a schoolmaster. He took six boarders, and continued to perform the double duties of pastor and tutor for two-and-thirty years; notwithstanding that he succeeded in 1735 to the rectory of Holwell in Bedfordshire, within three miles of Hitchin. Thus humbly circumstanced did Mr. Hildesley remain, until his exemplary conduct recommended him to the notice of the Duke of Athol, lord and patron of the bishoprick of Sodor and Mann; who nominated him to that see in 1755, on the death of the pious Bishop Wilson.

Of the manner in which this prelate discharged his episcopal functions, in an island in which the ignorance of the natives must have greatly added to the labours of a conscientious bishop, the reader will find in this volume a detailed account: but it will be sufficient for us to mention that, under his auspices, the whole of the Old and New Testament was translated into the Manks Language, together with the Common Prayer, and several minor tracts of religious instruction. This good work had certainly been begun, and some little progress was made in it, by Bishop Wilson: but the completion of it was reserved for Bishop Hildesley, whose name it will deservedly perpetuate with honour. This great object of his life was

scarcely attained, before life itself was withdrawn. It was on the 28th of Nov. 1772, that he received the last part of the Bible translation into Manks; and on the 30th of the same month, he was seized with a stroke of the apoplexy in the left side, of which within eight days afterward he died, in the 74th year of his age. A very particular and not uninteresting account of this venerable prelate's illness is given in the memoirs.

In the letters of the Bishop, preserved in the Appendix, the reader will find perhaps the best means of ascertaining his character. His principal correspondent, exclusively of his own clergy, was Dr. Monsey, the celebrated physician; a man of great learning, great wit, and of very singular manners. We select one or two of the Bishop's letters to this gentleman; with whom he had early formed a strict friendship, which continued inviolate during life.

'To Dr. Monsey.

'Bishop's-Court, Jan. 14, 1764.

'Your letters, my dear sir, in a string, Oct. 3 and 4, and Nov. 10. 19, &c. &c. 1763, made their appearance this day at a certain hostel, the sea-bound residence of an exotick ecclesiastick. "Now, thought I, for a full and complete answer to my last epistle of September, with notes, remarks, criticisms, and confutations." But, behold, after a most attentive perusal of what was before me, nothing less! I read and read the old *farraginem, eandem cantilenam*, of droll-dressing the doctors of the faculty of physick!

'What if I should observe, that sharp wits have short memories, and will not be tied down to the drudgery of recollecting what they have written? or, that the writer's late sufferings in the flesh have added some years to his mind; and he claims the allowance generally given to persons advanced in age, to tell the same story every day, to the same hearers, with the same spirit and vivacity, as if every word and circumstance were as fresh as the return of a new day?

'Although I am not sure whether Dr. Monsey will claim this allowance, I must, however, take one for myself; and shall therefore look again, for fresh matter. Your lively genius, sir, may help you to a manner of telling old stories with an entertaining grace; whilst my dull pen (as I have no wit, to justify forgetfulness) must dip for something new; or it would drag, like a harrow through the clotted grounds that have been soaked with the last winter's rains. Excuse this heavy comparison, which the melancholy weather helped me to.

'You say, "The shocks of your corporeal frame, which you have met with of late, have been received as merciful warnings of its mortality; and that the *appearance of death* awakened you into such thoughts and reflections, as afforded hopes that you had secured your more valuable treasure from the *power of his dart!*" I recite it, for my own sake, as having often experienced these remembrancers.—

Joyful

Joyful and Christian hopes! which, I pray God, may increase and remain with us, till hope shall be swallowed up in fruition.

'But, why so quick a transition from the *sacred* to the *profane* classicks? Touch, and away, from the former, and eleven lines from the latter? "O, quoth the doctor, a short hint from the one is sufficient to a *clerical* man. The XVth to the Corinthians, I doubt not, he has by rote; but the Xth of Juvenal I am not sure he has ever read." Yes, Sir, I have read it often, and was in former days as fond of it as you; nor am I yet old fool enough to despise, or not admire it. But you will pardon me, if I now am rather apt to refer you and myself to the grand reservoir of better knowledge and comfort, to be had from the sacred pages; especially for all those, who are turned downward from the upper round of the ladder of life: not that I think application to these is to be deferred till then. Here is a little boy of fourteen, that repeated to me, without book, our Saviour's divine sermon, contained in the Vth, VIth, and VIIth chapters of St. Matthew; whilst at the same time I must confess, he is such a classical blockhead, as not to be able to say two words of the Xth of Juvenal.

'I quite agree with you about the frivolous expletive apologies for *long letters*. If they are to those, to whom it does not become us to write them, apologies will rather increase than mend the fault, as thereby shewing that we are consciously guilty. With those friends, who mutually admit of paper-chatting on a par, excuses should be made for *short* letters; especially if they are to cross the the seas.

'What you lose of Grotius and Hammond by conversing with M. H, I cannot but be sorry for on your account. The best satisfaction you can have, poor as it is, for that loss, is the thought of entertaining and relieving a friend, in a solitary pensive mood; in a country, where, though civilities are common to all, the people are so affectionately connected by ties of blood one amongst another, throughout the land. I am, dear sir, very affectionately yours,

MARK SODOR and MANN.'

'To Dr. MONSEY.

'Dear Sir, 'Bishop's Court, March 13, 1764.

'Dreams, I readily allow, are inexplicable; and, happily for you and me, it is not our indispensable duty to account for them. Some suppose them to be a sort of reverie, not incident to sound sleep; something like what we must often have experienced awake; when a train of unconnected thoughts and imaginations intrude upon our minds, which may be termed *waking dreams*, being as far from our intention to call for, or to dwell upon, as the other. Those which occur in sleep may, possibly, sometimes point out and remind us of some predominant passion; and in that case, they may render themselves worthy of notice, and be of some use. Nay, for aught I know, and if I may so speak, they may be *awakening* warnings. The power of interpreting dreams having long since been withdrawn, every one must be left to judge according to what he finds most probable. I dare not pronounce them mere nothings; but I think a too frequent or a superstitious regard to them should be cautioned against.

'What

'What those teachers mean who speak of Security and Assurance, I cannot say; but I have heard of a great and inspired apostle, who thus writes; *Not as though I had already attained, or were already made perfect: But I follow after; I press forward; I keep under my body; lest, when I have preached to others, &c.* These words do not sound like *Assurance*, to which one would think a miraculously-converted apostle might have as good pretensions as any modern saint whatever. But, whether the teachers of this and such like doctrines are "mad," or "rogues," or hanged," (which, if we rightly understand them, I cannot give into) I do not know that it is my business to judge, or to enquire. That a fallible man may be in an error, I may be allowed to form my opinion; but, to enable me to pronounce whether he be sincere or not, I must have better evidence than at present I have opportunity to procure. To his own master, in this respect, I leave him to stand or fall.

'I am now come to your last words,—not your *dying* words, I hope; although, comparatively, living or dying, they will be true; "I know nothing." Suffer me to supply the *hiatus*, thus, "nothing as I ought to know; though I am desirous of knowing more than I am able, or than is fitting for me to know in these lower regions of darkness; where, dim-sighted creatures as we are, we must be content to see only as through a glass, and that very imperfectly." The present time is for the exercise of faith and hope, which lead to the regions of never-fading light and glory. For these let us patiently wait, and in earnest prepare; and that we may finally obtain them, God of his infinite mercy grant!

'I think I have here, by snatches, returned you in quantity, how short soever it may be in value, for the favour of your last long journal. You may ask, if you please, whether these are sermons or miscellanies? In point of length, either. This, indeed, closes like a sermon; but the whole taken together, are neither this nor that. Light, as either of their intrinsick weight may be, I wish that neither of my inclosures be too heavy for your patron's privilege of postage.

'As to the real Sermon, you are not obliged to read it: but if you do, and it affords any profitable hints, as it possibly did to some of the hearers when I preached it, thank God, and not the unworthy author; and do not injudiciously fancy that I meant or intended a comparison, or a personal application, by sending it to *you*. You will certainly allow there is something singularly affecting in *the dying man's address to his old companions;* the original of which, in his own hand, I have by me. Excuse my obtruding it upon you, as you have already excused what you before received from me in print. If you *seriously* want any more, you may command them. This offer supposes that you have more serious friends than I know of.

'Be so good as to dispatch a card to the post, certifying me that these papers are not dropped on the turf at New-Market, nor in the mall of St. James's Park; and that all three packets are come safe to your hands. They have lain by me for some time, as

you may see by the first date, owing to the anxious suspense I have been in for my sister's life, the chief remaining earthly comfort in this land. I shall not send you her case, as you have given up all but the curing of a wart. She has been confined seven weeks to her chamber, and is now but beginning to mend. Accept her compliments, and believe me, as ever, Dear Sir,

'Your affectionate and faithful,

'MARK SODOR and MANN.'

In the mass of materials of very different kinds collected in this appendix, we meet with several articles which will amuse, if they do not afford much solid information.—The following anticipation of the posthumous character of Sir R. Steele, written during his life by Dr. Rundle, and, as we are here told, never before published, is certainly not the least valuable:

'On the ——— day of ——— in the year ——— died Sir R. S.—(in decency we must suppose him dead, when we sum up his actions.) It is pity there is no person of abilities left, to give *his* character to the world, who drew so many, so finely! In a well-written life of him might be seen an epitome of mankind; and the motto of his first Tatlers was as true of his example as of his writings*. Surely, so many follies, and so much worth, were never blended together in any single person before. The last he resolved should be the guide of his behaviour, though he always followed the former.

'He was a coquette to Virtue; made continual advances, and seemed just yielding up himself to the comely dame who courted him, as she once did Hercules: when, on a sudden, he would flounce off, flirt back, and sink into the arms of Pleasure. His soul, in his calm morning-hours, was truly great; and some design for publick good, the improvement of knowledge, and the security of *liberty* (which he always esteemed the *manhood of the mind)*, was formed in his thoughts, and was the delight of his meditations: and it must be owned that England is ungrateful, if she doth not confess, that the present happiness she enjoys was more guarded to her by *him*, than by any thousand other private men she can boast of. He had undaunted courage to oppose all mankind, for the sake of what was right; but still, his inborn imprudences generally rendered that courage feebly useful to the world; and his inability to withstand some evening's merriment ruined half his attempts.

'But, notwithstanding the ridicule of such an allay in his patriot-ambition, he went on, like others, through good and ill report; and suffered himself to be laughed at and railed at, with all the indolence and insensibility of a Stoick.

'No bribes of riches or greatness could have tempted him to do a base action; though the necessities into which his carelessness in the management of his fortune, and a thoughtless generosity, had thrown him, often compelled him to submit to basenesses, almost as low as

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'* *Quicquid agunt homines nostri est farrago libelli.* JUV.'

those

those, by which others raise estates, and become glorious in villainy. Yet, while he did it, he scorned and hated himself; and resolved to be rich, that he might be honest. But still, the want of money returned, and with it all the mean shifts to extricate himself from the fatigue of lying to his creditors.

'Thus he went on, in a continual round of self-dislike, and doing actions which produced new self-dislike: But he had this to say for his worst conduct, that his vices were always rencounters, and never meditated wickedness.

'He was a pleasant companion, a generous enemy, and a zealous friend. His company was courted by every body, as more entertaining than a comedy: he never refused to forgive, and then forget, the injuries that had been done him by those, who desired they should be forgiven; and all his fortune was at the command of his friends, as well as his labour and reputation. He seemed to want gold only to give it away: his busy mind pursued project after project, in hopes to be rich; that by it he might be more eminently serviceable to his friends, and his country. He embraced every appearance that flattered this public-spirited avarice, though the proposal were ever so wanton and improbable. In hopes of getting immense wealth, he ran after every whim, and so first aimed at the Philosopher's Stone; and when that would not do, he could condescend to be thought the author of the humble discovery of a new-fashioned hoop-petticoat: but still, 'twas with the sacred view of serving his country by his riches.

'This briskness and quicksightedness, to find out mines of treasure in a *notion*, made him enquire out great numbers of men of abilities, who were obscured by poverty; and animated them to exert their inventive talents, by high promises. When any of them had contrived a handsome scheme, he would, in the hurry of his approbation, expend his whole cash to promote it: and at last, when the project was almost ready to repay with interest his trouble and charges, the hopes would be blasted, for want of another ten pounds to complete the undertaking. Thus he rid hard, continually coursing after treasure; and, when his dog bore at the game, by a nimble unexpected turn, it always escaped from its mouth, and he returned empty: however, he comforted himself that he had brave sport, and went out again the next day, fresh and eager to the field. Thus, constantly, with high hopes and self-complacency, he renewed his project, as warm in expectation of success, as if he had met with no disappointment. He was often within a day of being the richest, and therefore the honestest man in England: but, before that ill-natured to-morrow came, he died! much lamented by all who value wit and good sense; and he must be owned to be, if not virtuous, yet a lover of virtue.

'His writings will make him beloved by all, in ages to come, when his follies are forgot, or softened by time. To him we owe not only his own performances, but those of others likewise; and he was properly the man-midwife to all the children of the Muses born in his own time, and was suspected very often to be their father also.

'He

'He would have been what he was, had Addison never been born; but Addison would have died with narrow fame, had he never had a friendship with Sir R. whose compositions have done eminent service to mankind. To him we owe, that swearing is unfashionable, and that a regard to religion is become a part of good-breeding.

'He had learning; but it was seldom transfused into his performances. He studied nature more than books; and as Numa consulted with Egeria, and learnt his laws from that divine nymph, Sir R. was in love with a more real goddess; and was taught by her, in reality, all his precepts. He had an art to make people hate their follies, without hating themselves for having them; and he shewed gentlemen a way of becoming virtuous with a good grace.

'A bold free spirit, a lively humour, a quickness of thought, and the most delicate touches of the passions, inspire pleasure into all that read and understand his writings. He had not leisure and coolness enough to bear the fatigue of being correct: his observations on mankind crowded so fast upon him, that, for want of patience to write them down in a due, studied, natural order, he sometimes became obscure. His satire was severe and pointed; but, I think, he never once exerted that talent against his private, but always against his country's enemies; and therefore shewed good-nature, even in his sharpest and bitterest invectives.

'He had no genius for rhime; and he knew that he had not, and therefore but seldom attempted it. Those who love S. will only admire Addison: he will never have many applauders; but those who can relish him, will never think any writings equal to those he has left us.

'How good his political judgment was, may be learnt from his letters to Sir Miles Wharton, and to the bailiff of Stockbridge: how generous his sentiments of religion, may be seen in his Epistle to the Pope. The justness of his wit, and his exact knowledge of true character, every body confessed, by their approbation of his Plays and Tatlers.

'Let thy faults, O Sir R. be buried in thy grave, and thy virtues be imitated by all! Let thy writings be beloved; for whoever doth that sincerely, will, before he thinks of it, become a lover, if not a practiser, of virtue; and the world may owe to thee the removal of fopperies, that are to be born again in centuries to come. Thy works will be a medicine of the mind, and cure all the green-sickenessed appetites that will seize on the gay and the young, without so friendly a cordial. If all who have been, or shall be, benefited by thy advice, will own themselves thy admirers, never could author boast a more universal or a better founded applause; and Socrates himself shall have fewer disciples than Steele.—T. RUNDLE.'

We have no doubt that this curious portrait of a very celebrated man will be a sufficient excuse for the length of this quotation.

Wall...

ART.

ART. VI. *Munimenta Antiqua;* or, Observations on Ancient Castles, including Remarks on the whole Progress of Architecture, Ecclesiastical as well as Military, in Great Britain; and on the Corresponding Changes in Manners, Laws, and Customs: Tending both to illustrate Modern History, and to elucidate many interesting Passages in various ancient Classic Authors. By Edward King, Esq. F.R.S. and A.S. Vol. I. Folio. pp. 350. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Nicol. 1799.

THIS volume is the forerunner of three others, designed by the author to complete the very extensive plan which he has prescribed to himself, and which he promises to the public in the title-page. The present volume refers solely to the earliest periods of antient British history; to those days of primæval simplicity and rudeness, as the author calls them, the days of Druidism and of Patriarchal manners. The second will relate to the works of the Romans in this island, and the improvements which they introduced; to such works as were British imitations of Phenician and Syrian architecture, to those which were mere imitations of Roman architecture, and also to such as were but imitations of those imitations. The third volume will be devoted to the Saxon times; and the fourth will give 'the history of the strenuous efforts of Norman genius, and of the preparations which their sturdy and violent endeavours were permitted to make for better times.'

Of the architecture of the antient Britons, (every memorial of whose history, customs, and habits of life, has either been deeply obscured or entirely obliterated by time,) it cannot be supposed that we should find, even in a work professedly written on the subject, any very accurate or circumstantial account. Sagacious conjecture, founded on probable evidence, resulting from a careful combination of the few facts of which we have certain knowlege, can alone be expected, where an interval of so many centuries obstructs our inquiries. Accordingly, Mr. King has been able to collect but little on this subject that bears the appearance of certainty:

'As to the particular *private abodes*,' says he, 'even of the most considerable chieftains of the Britons, they must unavoidably have been dwellings nearly resembling rude tents, and hovels; easily removeable; and incapable of leaving any very durable remains behind them. And the huts of the people in general must have been chiefly of such kinds, as we now meet with amongst various barbarous and uncivilized nations, in the most remote parts of the globe. Small hovels, formed of loose stones, with sticks, and boughs; and covered with grass, or reeds; nearly like those described by many of our navigators, and travellers, in the South Sea islands; in Africa; and in America.

'Perhaps

'Perhaps then, it will not be a degradation of the idea to be formed, concerning the aboriginal private dwellings in this island, if we venture to compare the cabbins of the first migrators, and hunters here, with such as are still used by the poorer, wandering inhabitants of the mountainous, and of the yet most uncultivated parts of it.

'The range of ravenous beasts in the lower woods and valleys, made *those* spots originally dangerous to dwell in, and only fit for the scenes, and employments of hunting. And the hills alone, at first, were the only fit places even for any abodes at all. Here, therefore, both in Wales, and in the island of Anglesey, and in Scotland; and elsewhere in our own country, where they have had the possibility of being left undisturbed by subsequent cultivation, are to be met with remains and traces of the most antient dwellings of the first people.

'These, as far as they are now capable of minute examination, are found to have been mere clusters of little round, or oval foundations of stone; on which were erected small structures, with conical roofs or coverings, which formed the very circumscribed dwellings, and rude hovels, of the first settlers in Britain.

'In places of great natural strength and safety, or of much convenience in point of peculiar situation, it is easy to conceive they most abounded.

'And in some of these, in the more inaccessible mountains, although they continued to be, from age to age, sometimes the abodes of soldiers, as being fortresses of great natural strength; yet the original foundations and walls of such poor original little hovels do still remain; not having been subject, in consequence of their peculiar situation, to be eradicated, either by the magnificence, or necessities of succeeding generations; who could have no inducement to destroy such poor vestiges of pristine security for the sake of the materials.

'But, besides these, some clusters of ancient dwellings were, by degrees, constructed in deep woods, and morasses; and near rivers; in such parts, even of the Lowlands, as were fittest for security: and such became afterwards, in many instances, great cities: some in the times of the Romans; and others in the times of the Saxons.

'Amongst these Lowland clusters of huts, or *bods*, we may justly deem one to have been even the first origin of *London:* whose early existence, as a place of habitation, in some state or other, for the first aboriginal inhabitants, was thought, by the curious author of the Parentalia, to be sufficiently ascertained, both from the British name; and also from the different kinds of interment, discovered in distinct successive strata, one beneath another, on digging the foundations of St. Paul's Cathedral; from whence it clearly appeared, a greater number of Britons must have at the same time dwelt together with the Romans, than could have been supposed to have inhabited there, if it had been merely in its origin a Roman colony.

'They first found, deep under the graves of the later ages, and in a row (or stratum) below them, the burial places of the Saxon times: where the graves were either lined with chalk, or stone; and some had stone coffins. And again below these, were discovered Roman urns, and many British graves: in the latter of which were found

numbers

numbers of ivory pins; and pins of an hard wood, seemingly box, about six inches long.

'With regard to these last kinds of Lowland towns, and fortresses; the traces of which, as to their precise form, (like the traces of many of those on the mountains,) and the figure of their huts, must now unavoidably be almost entirely destroyed; we may yet learn, from Cæsar's description of one of the most considerable of them, what kind of places they were.'—

'The word used for the first kind of houses that could possibly exist in these sort of towns; that is for the huts the Britons constructed; it plainly appears was merely, *booth*, or *bod*. And even their best towns we find were clearly understood to be universally, mere assemblages of such huts.

'After all the best inquiry that Strabo could make, "The woods (he says) are their towns. For having fenced round a wide circular space, with trees hewn down, *there* they place their huts (καλυβοποιουνται), and fix stalls for their cattle; but not of long duration."

'And speaking in another place of the Gauls, whose customs and manners were so similar to those of the Britons, and which therefore, to avoid repetition, he often describes as having a reference to them, he says,

"They have dwellings of a round form, constructed of poles, and wattled work; with very high pointed coverings, of beams united at a point."

'Thus also Diodorus Siculus, mentioning more precisely the habitations of the Britons themselves; tells us, "they have very poor wretched dwellings, composed for the most part of reeds, (or straw,) and wood." From whence we may conclude that, though of the same form, they were in general of still less dimensions, and of less nice construction than those of the Gauls.

'In short, that they were little round hovels, formed of poles united to a point at the top, and covered with reeds or straw, placed upon low circular walls, or banks, of rough stones, or earth.'

This account of the early British domestic architecture offers not much either of novelty or of instruction: for surely it tends but little to gratify our curiosity, or to enlarge our knowlege, to inform us that the habitations of a barbarous people were hovels of the simplest structure, incommodious, inelegant, and calculated for no long duration. It is however true, as Mr. King observes, that, though the first settlers could have leisure only for the construction of such rude habitations, and for the exercise of equally rude occupations, yet, when they were once well established, they would naturally form some important and lasting places of *defence*, and also establish some *monuments* of their religion, customs, and superstitions. This, Mr. King is of opinion, the antient British have done. According to him, we have in these instances a field for satis-

factory inquiry; and, in the memorials which they have left of their military and religious architecture, he thinks, we have the means of acquiring considerable information respecting the very early history of our island. To assort the different kinds of those monuments which yet remain; to distinguish those which are truly antient from those which are of more modern date, with which they are too often confounded; and finally to collate the various classes of those antient monuments among themselves, and with those of the same kind which have been found in remote parts of the world, at various periods; is the great business of this volume. They are here ranked under the following heads; viz. 1. British posts, or strong-holds; together with caves and hiding places. 2. Stones of memorial. 3. Circles of memorial, of observances, and of observation. 4. Sacred circles, with altars of oblation. 5. Altars for sacrifice and divination. 6. Kistvaens; or tombs. 7. Barrows, and cairns. 8. *Logans;* or rocking stones. 9. *Tolmen*, and bason stones.

Of each of these denominations, the reader will here find a detailed account; formed principally by induction from the numerous instances of the respective kind, which yet remain in a state of greater or less preservation, scattered through our two islands. The account is illustrated by a comparison of these existing remains with those of a similar kind, described by travellers to have existed in other countries, during the early barbarism and ignorance of their inhabitants. A few extracts will give an idea of the author's manner, and may perhaps enable the reader to appreciate also the worth of his matter.

After having described, in his first chapter, a variety of antient British fortresses, he thus proceeds:

'We now ought to mention some of those extraordinary fortresses which from certain very striking circumstances in their appearance, have been supposed by Mr. Williams, and Mr. Anderson, who examined them very attentively, to have had their walls, or rather banks, *artificially vitrified;* but which Mr. Pennant, and Mr. Cordiner, (who also saw them,) concluded to be either remains of antient *volcanic* hills converted to this use; or at least to have had their valla, or banks, constructed of the lava of *volcanos* collected from some adjacent parts.

'Leaving the controversy to be supported by the ingenious dissertations that have been written to clear up this matter, we may just remark; that even if the bank or vallum was actually vitrified, it required no great degree of civilization or skill, to melt down, amongst the stones of which the bank was composed, masses of that particular kind of earthy iron ore of a very vitrescible nature; which we are told much abounds in that neighbourhood, and through all the northern parts of Scotland.

"The

" The fortresses of this kind," Mr. Anderson says, " for the most part, surround a small area on the top of some steep conical hill of very difficult access. One of the most remarkable of them, in particular, called *Knockferrel*, two miles west from Dingwal, in Ross-shire, is situated on the summit of a very steep and high hill, of a longish form, and therefore rising into a sort of ridge at top, long in proportion to its breadth. Hence, when it is viewed at a distance, opposite to either end, it appears of a perfect conical form, very beautiful in its proportions; but when it is seen on one side, one of the ends appears plainly to be much steeper than the other: and at that end where the declivity is the least steep is the access, by a narrow path, on which you may ascend to the top even on horseback. The fortress on this summit consists of a long elliptical area, of near an acre of ground, which is entirely level, except towards each end, where it declines and falls a little lower than in the middle; and where are the two entrances. The one defended by eight or more cross banks, extending about an hundred yards," as Mr. Anderson apprehended; " the other, where the hill is steeper, defended only by two or three such banks, extending about twenty yards. This area is surrounded entirely, except at the entrances, by a steep sloping bank or *vallum*, so exactly adapted to the form of the hill, as to stand on the very brink of a precipice all round: and to appear even a continuation of the steep slope of the hill. On cutting through this bank, it appeared to be composed of rubbish, and loose stones, and superincumbent earth, like any other mound; but on the outside sloping part, it was found to have a crust of about two feet in thickness, consisting of stones immersed among vitrified matter; some of the stones being half fused themselves, and the rest of them having evidently suffered a considerable heat. But the stones in the interior substance of the bank beneath this crust, and in the part next the inward area, did not seem to have been affected at all.

" Such was the strange appearance of the construction of this vallum. In other respects it is exactly like that of other British fortresses: and," as the ingenious author of this account observes, " composed of large loose stones; not merely for the sake of forming a steep vallum to prevent the approach of an enemy, but because (being on the brink of a precipitous steep,) no weapon could well have been so destructive to an assailant, as a stone rolled down the hill.

" In some other of these fortresses, the supposed vitrification was perceived to be on the inside."

' Let us attend to a few plain facts, by way of elucidating this matter, if possible, a little more fully.

' Strabo has told us, that the walls of British towns and fortresses, in the plain and Lowland parts of the country, were constructed of trees hewn down, and made to form a fence; and if so, we may surely conclude, that even in the hills, wherever timber could without difficulty be obtained, trees were also made use of, at least in part, to construct the banks and fences round the summits of their strongholds. It is most probable, that trees and wood were at first laid in

such *valla* or banks, to bind the stones and earth the more firmly together; and to enable the Britons, or Caledonians, to raise those banks the higher. And in that case nothing is more obvious, than that such walls were capable of being set on fire by an enemy. And if they were once set on fire, and there should chance to have been any of the earthy iron ore of a vitrescible nature, with which the neighbouring country abounded (and which Mr. Anderson mentions), mixed with the stone and timber, though by mere accident, and only as a material ready at hand, the vitrified mass so much the object of attention *now*, would easily have been produced, without any design on the part of the original architects.

'That other still more antient walls were actually of this sort of construction has been most judiciously taken notice of by Mr. Harmer; who says moreover, that the building walls partly of stones, and partly of other materials, continues to be a practice in the East to this very day.

'Even the magnificent and finished wall of the outer court of the Temple of Solomon, was built with three rows of hewed stones, and then a row of cedar beams: and so was the wall of the inner court. And again; when the walls were rebuilt, after the captivity, it was with three rows of great stones, and a row of new timber.

'And from this sort of construction, with materials so mixed, in a much ruder manner, we may be able to account not only for vitrified remains, but also for what the prophet Amos says, concerning the *sending a fire on the wall of Gaza;* and *kindling a fire on the wall of Rabbah, in the day of battle, when their king should go into captivity.*

'We have a remarkable instance, mentioned by Josephus, of a strong inner wall, built by the Jews, when *Masada* was besieged; which was constructed of rows of great beams laid cross and cross, in an artificial manner, with earth and rubbish flung in to fill up the cavities; this wall could not be affected by the battering ram, which had destroyed the outward one. Flavius Silva, the Roman general, therefore, found no other means of destroying it but by fire; which at last accomplished its ruin. And had any of the earth and materials thrown in consisted at all of such sort of clay as has been just mentioned, there cannot be a doubt but that the ruins of this wall would have formed a *vitrified bank*, exactly of the same kind with the vitrified walls we have been describing.

'These facts therefore may very plainly account, at least in a degree, for the *vitrified walls* of some of the old Caledonian strongholds, which in other respects so nearly resembled the strongholds in Wales, and other hilly parts of this island.

'And we may the rather attribute the appearance to some such cause; when we consider, that the first and most antient walls of the *Acropolis* at *Athens*, were merely of wood; as appears from the misapprehension of the oracle in the time of Xerxes.

'And that, in later ages, there is every reason to believe, some of the antient Welch castles had also walls merely of wood.

'It remains only to be added, that two more of these vitrified fortifications are to be seen in Galloway.'

The

The 5th chapter, concerning sacred circles, has the following description of *Stone-henge:*

'Having, from so many concurring facts, derived a certain degree of information, with regard to the original use of those various Circles of *Druidical stones* (as they are called) which were designed for mere civil purposes; it is now time to proceed to the investigation, still more particularly, of those more magnificent Remains, which there can be no doubt were originally parts of structures destined to superstitious, and what were deemed most sacred rites, and ceremonies.

'As of this destination there can exist no doubt; it being a fact allowed on all hands; it would be both unnecessary, and unwarrantable, here to repeat, what has been so judiciously, and ingeniously, and in most respects so satisfactorily, observed, and written, concerning these wondrous piles, by Rowland, Stukeley, Borlase, and Wood. I shall therefore confine myself chiefly to such *new* and additional observations, as may tend, without invalidating the material substance of their conclusions, to afford still farther light.

'The most perfect and stupendous structure of this kind yet remaining, may however, I trust, justly be referred to, in order to explain in a more precise manner, the whole of them.

'*Stonehenge*, in Wiltshire, will therefore be instantly present to every one's mind on this occasion.

'I chanced, the first time I visited this structure, to approach it by moonlight; being later on my journey in the evening, than I intended. This, however, was a circumstance advantageous to the appearance: insomuch, that although my mind was previously filled with determined aversion, and a degree of horror, on reflecting upon the abominations of which this spot must have been the scene; and to which it even gave occasion, in the later periods of Druidism; yet it was impossible not to be struck, in the still of the evening, whilst the moon's pale light illumined all, with reverential awe, at the solemn appearance produced by the different shades of this immense group of astonishing masses of rock; artificially placed, impending over head with threatening aspect; bewildering the mind with the almost inextricable confusion of their relative situations with respect to each other; and, from their rudeness, as well as from their prodigious bulk, conveying at one glance, all the ideas of stupendous greatness, that could well be assembled together: whilst, at the same time, the vast expanse of landscape, from this summit of an hill, added an idea of boundless magnificence, similar to that produced by a view of the wide extended ocean.

'Surely, there can hardly be a more painful reflection; or one that more tends to cause an honest mind to shudder with indignation;—than that by the perverseness and blindness of the human heart, such grand associations of ideas should ever have been perverted to impious, and to idolatrous purposes; instead of being directed to the worship and honour of HIM, who created the whole expanse from hence surveyed; both above, and beneath; who made sun, moon, and stars; heavens, and heavens of heavens; worlds of inconceivable glory.

'It is an happy circumstance, that we do not, at this distance of time, with precision, understand *what* the abominations here practised, in the latter most corrupted ages of Druidism, were; though the first original designation, in conformity with Patriarchal usages, is manifest enough.

'It is not to be lamented that we are so far ignorant; and it would be serving but an ill purpose, to endeavonr to bring them to light again; or to strive to catch ideas of them, by the wild guidance of conjecture; as has sometimes been endeavoured.

'I shall beg leave, therefore, here to draw the veil: and in these observations only to elucidate as much as appears most positively clear, from the most ancient records; and as is indeed, in a degree, free from any necessary concern with those gross abominations.'—

'The stones which are here found are, in general (as far as such rude masses can be reduced to any scale) between 6 and 7 feet broad; between 3 and 4 thick; and about 14 in height; and, when they were all entire, plainly formed (as appears from the uniform proportions of what remain,) a great circular inclosure; of about 97 feet in diameter; consisting of 30 upright rude stone pillars; and of 30 imposts, each of which was about 10 feet long, or a little more; and about 3 feet thick. The intervals or intercolumniations between these stones was only about 3, or sometimes near 4 feet; but amongst these, the interval at (*a*) was rather wider than the rest; and formed a sort of principal entrance to this august structure. The whole construction manifestly shewing, how even very small dimensions, provided there be but a sufficiently obvious scale for measuring the greatly different proportions of the several parts, may convey effectual ideas of magnificence, even detached from any consideration of the additional circumstance of grandeur, that is conveyed by the vast bulk of each single stone.

'There remain 17 upright pillars of the outward circle standing; and 7 now lying on the ground, either whole, or in pieces; there remain also 6 of the imposts in their places. But all the rest are carried off and lost.

'They have all plainly in a degree been wrought with a tool; for, in order to join the upright pillars to the imposts more effectually, there is formed, on the top of each pillar, a sort of tenon, of the form of half an egg; and about 10½ inches in diameter; which was made to fit into a corresponding mortise in the impost. And the rude pillars themselves, on examination, have been found to be placed at bottom, in a kind of socket, dug in the chalky soil; and having small flints carefully rammed in, between the stone and the sides of the socket.

'About 9 feet nearer towards the centre; that is, 9 feet from the inside of this exterior Circle, appear the remains of a second and interior Circle, of smaller stones; which are of about one half of the dimensions of those of the outward circle. And (from the proportion of the distances of those that remain, as well as from their situation,) they appear to have been originally twenty-nine in number.

'Only nine of these are now left standing in their proper places: and whether they ever had, or had not, imposts on them, is not at present

present to be determined. But it is remarkable, that whereas the stones of the outward Circle are of a lightish colour, being by some Observers deemed to be of the same kind as the *Grey-Weathers* on Salisbury Plain; these, of the inner Circle, are of darker hue, almost inclining to black: which variety and contrast, must have added much to the beauty of the original work.

'After passing the remains of these two great outward Circles; between which the circular walk seems to have been nearly 300 feet in circumference, and to have afforded an awful view of the interior structure; we come to the most striking part of the whole: which is, at the distance of about 13 feet more inwards; consisting of a large portion of an oval, about 52 feet in its shortest diameter, and a few feet more in its longest; a part of whose circumference was formed originally by at least *five*, (or as appeared to me, and as I much suspect, by *seven*) massy combinations of huge fragments of rock, in the form of exceeding high altars; placed one at the end, and the rest on each side of the longest diameter, fronting the principal entrance.

'These Dr. Stukeley calls *Trilothons;* because they were composed of three great stones each: and stand each quite apart; and not joined to, or appearing to have any annexation to each other, like the pillars and stones in the outward circle.

'This vast, rude remain of the highest Trilothon, is about 22 feet in length to its top; whereon still exists the great tenon, that fastened it to the impost above. Its fellow supporter is thrown down; and lies, just by, in two great pieces; whilst the impost itself has fallen quite across the long black stone marked (*y*); which was placed a little before the foot of this high altar; and in this position it for some years remained, so nicely balanced, as to form a sort of rocking stone.

'All these great Trilothons, may be plainly observed to have been so constructed, that those on each side the oval, were made respectively to increase in height, the further they were from the entrance: whilst this (whose leaning pillar is left,) which fronted the entrance, was highest of all.

'In the front of this last; at the distance of about 12 feet; was placed on the very ground, and partly sunk into it, a great black stone: about 16 feet in length, and 4 feet wide, and about 20 inches thick: which seems to have marks of burning upon it still remaining; and is of a quite different, and harder kind of stone, than the rest; as being designed to resist the effects of fire.

'The leaning pillar of the great and highest Trilothon; and the two Trilothons, on each side, remained entire, when I visited the spot; and whilst the vastness of their bulk is so obvious, it cannot but appear most remarkable, what a very small interval there is between the two great supporters of each Trilothon. It is not more than 21, or 22 inches: though the width of each stone supporter, is at least about 7 feet; or $7\frac{1}{2}$.

'This narrow interval therefore seems plainly to indicate, that the void space, between the two stones, could neither have been designed for a seat, as some have supposed:—or for any entrance;—or for *passing through*, for any superstitious purposes; (as others have imagined.)

gined.)—But that plainly, each structure of these *five* was intended indeed solely for *an high raised basis*;—an altar of oblation;—a sort of *Table for offerings*;—according to what we read of antient Ceremonies concerning *Offerings*; and are informed is still in use, amongst barbarous, and Gentile nations.'

It appears from this passage, and from other parts of the work, that the author fears that, if we were minutely acquainted with the detail of the idolatry of our pagan ancestors, we should probably be charmed into an adoption of it: an apprehension which certainly indicates a very peculiar turn of mind. We believe that but few persons, at this time of day, are seriously apprehensive that the view of an old Druidical sacrifice would pervert them to that idolatry.

It has been a generally received opinion that the rude monuments, called Cromleches, have been raised principally to mark the spot on which a chieftain or a hero had been buried: but Mr. King inclines rather to think that they were used as altars for those idolatrous sacrifices, for which he professes such a religious disgust and devout abhorrence. He defends this opinion at some length: but we have not room to quote his argument, and must conclude our extracts with a note which exemplifies, in a striking manner, not more the writer's *detestation* than his *fear* of idolatry:

'In these sheets I have endeavoured, in the clearest manner *possible*, and from the highest, and most unquestionable authorities of remote antiquity, to elucidate the true history of the Druidical Stones; of their sacred Circles; and of their abominable Altars. But I cannot forbear adding a hearty wish, that no use may ever be made of what is here brought to light, for the purpose of introducing any imitations, or representations, of such things upon the Stage, by way of representing antient manners. For I must conscientiously say, that I have ever thought the representation of Pagan *sacrifices*, and of Pagan *rites*, upon the stage, to be (if not an absolute abomination in itself) at least a too near imitation of abominations. And the very reverse of an observance of that holy command, to which *a blessing* was annexed; viz. to break their images; and pillars; and to throw down their altars, &c.'

In this work, the reader will find interspersed some other notions connected with religion, not less uncommon than this *idolo-phobia* of the author; such are the ideas that all the improvements of human life in architecture, &c. &c. are rather the result of immediate inspiration from the Deity, than of the unaided effort of human reason; that mankind are verging to a state of absolute perfection, &c. &c. On the whole, however, the publication will form a valuable addition to the literature of the country;—and, from the admirable style of its typographical execution, (from the press of Bulmer,) it comes well recommended to the lovers of that art.

Wall...

ART. VII. *Plays and Poems;* by Miss Hannah Brand. 8vo. pp. 440. 7s. Boards. Rivingtons, &c. 1798 *.

IT is never our wish to repress the love of literary fame, especially when we see it acting in a female's mind: but our office imposes on us the task of discrimination; and the young lady who is desirous of improving, as a writer, will not be offended if we discharge our duty. Miss Brand has something to learn, in order to class with the celebrated female poets of the age. She has unfortunately stood in need of a friendly critic, to remind her that all true lovers of poetry are very fastidious; that, though mediocrity may be tolerated in prose, it cannot be allowed in verse; that the muse should unite strength with perspicuity, and will suffer disgrace when she becomes tame and feeble; in short, that poetry is something very different from prose divided into lines of a certain number of syllables. Had Miss Brand been thus instructed in the closet, our duty would have been more pleasantly discharged; for, while we acknowlege that she has displayed some ~~marks~~ traits of genius, we must, in justice to her as well as to ourselves, remark that we have not unfrequently observed in her works such a prosaic feebleness, often arising from dilatation, as true taste cannot relish. E. g. in the first play,

'Corvinus begs
That you would see him now.
PRINCESS. To bring this message
Was wrong.'——

A want of ear, also, is continually observable throughout the whole of the first play, which is intitled 'Huniades, or the Siege of Belgrade;' and in the second, called 'The Conflict; or Love, Honour, and Pride,' (altered from D. Sanche d'Aragon of P. Corneille,) this fault is not corrected. To say nothing of the extravagance of its sentiments, this play has not obtained so much of the lady's care as would have exempted it from unnecessary truisms and bad grammar; as an instance of the first, we read that

——'For when obedience
Is by dishonour stain'd, kings *go too far.*'

To exemplify the second fault, we may adduce a line at p. 189.

'He makes more jealous than myself, I fear.'

While, however, we notice the defects of Miss Brand's writings, we must do her the justice of exhibiting a whole scene in which she appears to advantage.

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* Illness, and accidental obstacles, have thus long protracted our account of this work.

'*Donna*

' *Donna Isabella, Don Carlos.*

' *D. Isabella.* Why has Don Sancho thus conceal'd himself?
I dare not offer gratulations to him.
Those he despises, since he would not claim them,
Rejecting his advantages as King.
' *D. Carlos.* I have no claim to gratulations, Madam!
You are deceiv'd in thinking me Don Sancho.——
Permit me instantly to quit Castile,
And shun the gathering storm, that threats my head.
' *D. Isabella.* What can you fear? What thus appals you, Marquis?
Because a Monarch deem'd are you offended,
When your own virtues force us to presume it?
If not Don Sancho, tell me who you are?
Though you disdain'd, when brav'd to name your race,
Yet, I entreat you, now confide in me.
' *D. Carlos.* Already is my secret half betray'd;
In vain I hid my country and my race,
In vain assum'd another name, disdainful,
Hating the one fate gave me at my birth.
My Name and Country are discovered both;
I am of Arragon,—there Sancho nam'd.—
Thus much this fatal error has unravell'd,
I fear Fate's malice will disclose the rest;
And soon reveal with shame, and dire disgrace,
What Count, what Marquis, you have deign'd to make.
' *D. Isabella.* Have I nor power, nor courage to protect
The structure I have rear'd? Who shall destroy it?
Then trust me, Carlos! trust me with this secret,
As to a chosen and most zealous friend;
And I who wrought your fortune will maintain it.
' *D. Carlos.* Let me depart, ere I a victim fall
To the dire fate, that menaces me here;
And screen myself from what its wrath prepares.
' *D. Isabella.* Count, you deceive me! this weak, idle fear,
Is love's pretence to quit my Court and Kingdom.
Hence your disdain of the fair Bride I offer'd you.
Go into Arragon. Your Princess follow;—
Go openly! nor thus descend to counterfeit.
Since your proud heart is by her charms enslav'd,
Do not abase yourself to ask my leave;
Depart triumphant, in despite of *me.*
To go, without my knowledge, is less insult,
Than to depart against my prohibition.
' *D. Carlos.* In mercy, Madam! add not to my woes,
Your cruel scorn, and undeserv'd reproach.
' *D. Isabella.* Why then delude me with evasive art,
Act from one motive, and another own?
For such deceit is most ungrateful, Carlos!
You love Elvira,——therefore quit my Court.

' *D. Carlos.*

' *D. Carlos.* No, Madam, no! I love not bright Elvira;
Though I would fight her cause, and die to serve her.
Death is my only wish, 't is the sole good,
Heaven has in store for me——
' *D. Isabella.* Whence this despair?
Art thou not grac'd by fortune's richest gifts?
And has not Nature, with a lavish hand,
Endow'd thee amply, with her choicest blessings?
Who is more envy'd, Carlos! than thyself?
Then why repine, and whence this strange despondency?
Is it within the compass of my power
To cure thy griefs?—Speak! for I wish thee happy.
' *D. Carlos.* Canst thou reverse the stern decrees of Heaven;
And by a miracle change nature's course?—
Annul the past, from memory's fix'd record;
And change the future destiny of things?
' *D. Isabella.* I understand a sorrow in your words,
But not their purport, Carlos! What afflicts you?
' *D. Carlos.* A cureless grief which I must never speak,
Which, till it almost bursts, my heart has borne.
For pity's sake, O Queen! no more reproach me;
But grant me leave, to spend in solitude,
My rest of days———I must not——cannot stay.—
' *D. Isabella.* Though to a friend's entreaties you are silent;
Yet surely to a Queen some reason 's due,
For quitting thus, her service and her Court.
How can you justify this sudden conduct,
So strange, and so unlike the intrepid Carlos?
' *D. Carlos* (*wildly*). Adoring you, I cease to be myself.
No more I wish for fame, nor value life.—
Oh! must I see you in another's arms?
My mind is fir'd to phrenzy at the thought:
Love, envy, and despair, uproot my soul.—
I thought to hide this secret in the grave;
I sought to die, without offending you.
But love, this day, dethrones my feeble reason.— (*Kneels.*)
Can you forgive a wretch, who, on the rack,
Has fail'd in firmness, and breath'd forth one sigh,
Which, though repented, cannot be recall'd.
For you my heart felt the first pulse of love.
A heaven inspir'd emotion, undebas'd
By self regard, or thought of due return:
Hopeless I sigh'd, nor one fond wish dar'd form.—
I go for ever———must I go unpardon'd?——
(*The Queen turns weeping to him.*)
Madam! you weep! Oh! whence proceed those tears?
' *D. Isabella.* Carlos———(*stops, unable to speak.*)
' *D. Carlos.* O Isabella!——O my royal mistress!
What have I done? Have I fresh cause for anguish?
Those tears! – burst they from aught but indignation?
Scorn were less poignant to my tortur'd mind,

Than

Than to have griev'd your heart, or caus'd one tear.
And can I ask?———Yes:——pity me and frown!
Your anger, that will lacerate my heart,
Will glad my soul, when reason reigns again.

'*D. Isabella.* 'Gainst one, who so unwillingly offends,
I feel no anger.——Carlos! you are pardon'd. (*Signs to him to rise.*)

'*D. Carlos.* That pardon is more dear, than all your gifts.
Madam! receive your Ring; revoke your trust.
I must depart, and hide my guilty head.——

'*D. Isabella.* (*irresolute after a pause.*) Stay till the Prince of Arragon appears:
Give him my Ring. A Queen, for all the favours
She has bestow'd, entreats that one from *you.*

'*D. Carlos.* O Madam! let me shun impending fate.
If I obey you, I incur its wrath.———
The haughty Counts seek to dishonour me;
I would preserve my honour to my grave;
Let my heart burst with grief, but not with shame.

'*D. Isabella.* Stay till Don Sancho comes, ere you depart,
Let me in this command;——oblige me, Carlos!

'*D. Carlos.* Oh! fatal mandate! but your will is law.
You doom me, Queen! to what is worse than death;
To contumelious scorn from those who hate me.
Yet,—if you wish it,—why should I repine.—
I'll stay, and brave the malice of my fate:
When you command, I have no self-regard.

'*D. Isabella.* Why art thou not Don Sancho! hapless Carlos!
O Heaven!——believe me not—what have I said? (*Going.*)

'*D. Carlos.* What, with strange magic, tortures and delights,
Consoles me, whilst it wounds my aching sense,
What, has charm'd all the horrours of my fate;
What, I most joy to hear, yet grieve to know.' (*Exeunt severally.*)

The dialogue of the last play, *Adelinda*, altered from *La Force du Naturel* by Destouches, is in prose; and here Miss Brand is happier than in Heroics. This Drama is written with spirit, the characters are ably discriminated, and those of Adelinda and Dorcas are extremely well drawn and sustained.

Of the poems at the end of the volume, the longest but not the best is the Monk of La Trappe. The Ode to Youth is so greatly its superior, that we wonder at its having proceeded from the same pen. We find also an Ode to Adversity, which does not possess equal merit with the address to youth: and a Prayer to the Parcæ or Destinies, which concludes the whole.

'Inexorable Triad! tell us! where,
In what vast Antre, or what Cypress grove,
Your gloomy Altars trembling Mortals rear;
And what the hallow'd Sacrifice ye love?

'If ever your stern breasts relent at tears,
If ye have hearts that sighs can comprehend,
If ye can sympathize in human cares,
Propitious to our humble suit attend!

'Two Sisters are we, who in life's rough way,
Full early enter'd 'neath a baneful Star,
Together, though unbless'd with one bright ray,
We bear the hardships of its constant war.

'Companions still, the same our hopes and woes,
Sweet counsel seek we in each other's mind;
'And the soft green, where harrass'd souls repose,
Each finds within her Sister's bosom shrin'd.

'No dearer Friendship, and no separate Joy,
Has e'er estrang'd us from each other's heart,
No Strife has ever mingled its alloy,
In Good, or Ill, each had a Sister's part.

'Together we retrace our sorrows past,
With that sweet interest only Sisters feel,
Hope's bright'ning beam upon the future cast,
Or present Ills participating heal.

'Such, ye stern Parcæ! are your Suppliants now;
Seeking Protection from one dreaded Ill:
We ask not wealth, nor Honours for our brow;
Unmurmuring have we liv'd without them still.

'Nor do we ask exemption from all Grief;
Patient we bow to an o'erwhelming share;
There is but One,——for which there 's no relief,
But One——we have not Fortitude to bear.

'If erring Mortals, ignorant, and blind,
May, sinless, deprecate the Grief they fear,
Be our petition in your memory shrin'd!—
Respect the sacred prevalence of prayer

'Clotho! thy Distaff at thy pleasure fill;
E'n though the flax with rugged knots be cross'd;
Lachesis! draw our Threads together still,
We heed not, whether long, or short thou draw'st;

'When, to their length, th' appointed Threads are spun,
Them, to the fatal Shears together guide:
Swiftly, O Atropos! thy task be done,
The Sister Threads, at the same stroke, divide.'

Miss Brand no doubt derives pleasure from her attention to the Muses; and she may certainly communicate to others a portion of that pleasure, if she will learn not to be too easily satisfied with herself. Poetry, like a picture, must be touched and retouched before it can be highly finished.

Moo-y.

Art.

ART. VIII. *A general Treatise on Music*, particularly on Harmony or Thorough-Bass, and its Application in Composition. Containing also many essential and original Subjects, tending to explain and illustrate the Whole. By M. P. King. Folio. pp. 77. all engraved and stamped. Price One Guinea; sold by the Author, No. 123, Great Portland Street, and by the Music-sellers.

WE so rarely summon works of this kind to our court of criticism, that the opinion of our twelve judges will not, perhaps, enable us to administer justice on the present occasion, in such a manner as shall at once satisfy the author and the public: but, though our whole bench ought to be *blind* when assuming the character of Astræa, they are happily not *deaf* when the sons of Apollo plead their cause. In a musical sense, we can boast that—" some of us have ears;" which in early life were cultivated, and which still, in our graver days, are sometimes gratified with " the concord of sweet sounds."

Where the musical notes occupy more pages than the text, which is the case in the volume before us, it might be supposed that a profound knowlege of harmony, and a very intimate acquaintance with different styles of composition, were the qualities most necessary to the analysis and appreciation of the performance: but, as the tables are neatly constructed, as the musical examples or illustrations are ingenious, and as the writing is, on the whole, clear and accurate, we could not regard this merely as a musical production. We have therefore attentively examined it; and we shall speak of it as it affected our intellect in point of literary merit, and convinced us of its utility as an elementary work, by the solidity of its precepts: freely pointing out, also, such defects as we have observed.

The *Introduction* contains the first rudiments of music. In this section, which may with propriety be called the Musical Accidence, we find but little that has not been inserted in almost every elementary tract, from honest John Playford to the present time. Mr. King's definitions and explanations are clear, and in better language than those of most works of the same kind: but, in speaking of the situation of musical notes on the staff or 5 lines, where he says that ' they are situated either *within*, above, or below five parallel lines,' we think that the word *on* is wanted, instead of within, to distinguish the linear notes from those *within* the spaces;—and in the Time-table, by not placing the semibreve or *datum* over its fractions, in the usual manner, its proportions will not be so obvious as in the common way.

In explaining the clefs, p. xv. the names of the notes are well arranged in the different staves under each other: but it

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is doubtful whether all these different gammuts in the several clefs can be learned at once;—after the common bass and treble scales are well-known, the rest of the clefs may be easily taught by analogy. In other respects, this is a neat and clear comparative view of all the clefs in general use, both for voices and instruments.

P. xviii. in speaking of ligatures, or binding-notes, when the author says: 'The second of two tied notes of the same name must not be sounded again;' he should have added, but the sound is continued as if there were only *one note.*—The double dot is a new expression of continuity, not much more antient than about the middle of the eighteenth century; Emanuel Bach was, perhaps, the first composer who used it.

P. xx. 4. The precept for long binding-notes of the same tone seems very inaccurate. The author says: 'if several long notes of equal value are tied together, they should all be continued with an *equal degree of force.*' Now no singer, nor any performer on a wind-instrument, or on one played with a bow, will lose the opportunity of *varying the force* of a long note, by a swell, a *diminuendo*, or both. For *force*, the author must certainly mean *length.*

The abbreviations, we believe, had not before found admission in an English elementary book. The same may be said of the characters for *crescendo* and *diminuendo*; indeed, the terms themselves are not inserted in Rousseau's *Dict. de Musique.*

Part the First, containing the essential Principles.

The generation of sound (pp. 1, 2, and 3,) is neither clear nor truly philosophical. The explanations are scarcely intelligible to those who are already well-acquainted with the theory of sound; and by young students we can scarcely imagine that any useful knowlege can be extracted from these three pages. The adoption of the French *technica* of *dominant*, *sub-dominant*, and *sensible-note*, &c. will convey little information to those who are unacquainted with the writings of Rameau, and other French theorists.

The first chapter of this first part contains no discoveries made by the author, but explanations of musical phænomena which philosophical experiments have ascertained. We know not well how to call this scale and these proportions the work of *nature*; they are all produced by art:—a great bell—a thick string—a large pipe, are works of art. Even the musical diatonic scale is not produced by any bird, nor by any animal besides man.

In speaking of the 6th in the ascending minor scale being major, the author should have informed the reader that it is

more frequently made minor in modern melody, than major; and that it has, in slow movements, a more pathetic effect. In Tastini's ascending minor scale, the major 6th is abandoned, even in theory.—On the peculiarities of the minor scale, the author (we fear) will be found extremely dark and confused, by young musicians.—It is inaccurate to make the chromatic octave consits of 13 semi-tones. The octave is always, in practice, regarded as consisting of 12 semi-tones, which furnish 12 major and 12 minor keys. From G to C♯ or D♭ is the first chromatic interval; and if the lower sound of the octave be regarded as the *datum* only, it cannot be called an *interval*, though it is a key. The octave of the key-note furnishes no new key, nor modulation.

The tables and symbols of general rules, as laid down by Mr. King, are often elegant, new, and ingenious; particularly the figuring of intervals, p. 13. Geminiani has exceeded integers in using 10, 11, and 12, to indicate the particular part of the instrument at which a chord should be taken.

The word *similar*, used in p. 16, seems better than *right*, for the first of the 3 motions: as *right* is equivocal, and appears to imply that the other two motions or progressions are wrong: but then *similar* is not a *geometrical* term.

The *point d'orgue* (p. 18.) is a technical term, unknown (or at least unpractised) in England, and every where else, but in France. The Italians and English express the same thing by *Tasto solo*, or a bass *à pedule*, without chords.—(See Corelli's Solos.

Part II. on Harmony.

In p. 29, *et alia*, by not accompanying the false 5th with a 6th, in four parts, the author renders the harmony very meagre.

Two remarks occur at p. 33, which are new and comprehensive. In speaking of the preparation and resolution of discords, Mr. King ingeniously says: 'By preparation it must be understood, that sounds shall agree, before they disagree;' and 'the preparation of a discord in modern music, is often dispensed with; but from its resolution, it is impossible to be exempted.'*

The piling of chord upon chord can hardly be reduced to a rule: it is never done but as a licence, to effect some extraordinary purpose (except by the French, of Rameau's school,) in the answer to a fugue; or to express a disagreeable effect pointed out by the words, in dramatic music.

* Though this work has been brought out with great care, yet still a table of errata is requisite: among which, at p. 35, it should be said, that a sharp is wanting to the 6th, bar 4; and p. 36. (§ 4.) for perfect $\frac{6}{5}$, r. $\frac{4}{3}$.

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At p. 41. in the example at (r.) and (y.) where the 9 7 occur, there should be placed a 3 over the 7, as the resolution of the 9th.

All the discords in ligature would have been best expressed by the word *suspension*—as the 2ds by *anticipation*—and *appoggiaturas* of the whole chords: which is the case at (i.) (q.) (r.) (s.) and (t.) (§ 2.); and at h. i. k. l. m. n. o. p. (§ 3.) At p. 46, *suspension* and *anticipation* are used; at least mentioned, and promised to be explained; and that promise is kept at p. 51.

Part III. *on the Application of Harmony.*

In treating of the fundamental bass to the ascending scale, prohibiting its use, except in wide intervals, the author might have shewn that, on emergencies, every note in the octave, by contrary motion, may carry a common chord, or chord of the 7th; as $\overset{5}{C}\ \overset{3}{D}\ \overset{8}{\underset{7}{E}}\ \overset{5}{F}\ \overset{3}{G}\ \overset{8}{A}\ \overset{7}{B}\ \overset{5}{C}$; and even in descending, all but the 7th and 2d (unless the 5th in the latter chord) are followed by the 6th.

In accompanying the descending scale minor, the 6th of the key is best accompanied by two 3ds, and an extremely sharp 6th. The chord of the $\overset{6}{\underset{4}{\underset{3}{}}}$ to the minor 6th is a French combination, to which other countries are not very partial. The tables for accompanying the scale are ingenious: but we think that a notation of the chords over the bass would have been more easily understood by a young practitioner.

It is ingenious, and new, to call the regular ascent by 5th and 6th, *anticipation:* but we think that the application of the term *transition*, to mere passing-notes, is a misnomer. Transition implies a change of chord, passing from one harmony to another; not the melody of the bass or treble. It is almost synonimous with modulation, but not quite: as that implies change of key. The making use of the word *transition* for a *passing-note* may seem more elegant: but the word is wanted for another purpose, and the more ignoble expression has been so long established in the language of music, that it seems not to have incurred excommunication. Indeed, at p. 70, the author has been obliged to restore the old technical expression to its rights.

Pp. 56, *et seq.* chiefly from Rousseau, on the subject of modulation, with the author's own remarks, are clear and useful.

The circle of keys, with their near and distant relation or affinities, major and minor, by the same notes, is ingenious and striking. We have seen something like it in Bedford's Treatise, but this greatly extends and improves the idea.

We are grieved to find any thing to censure in the great and venerable Handel: but it is not in his music, which is beyond the reach of criticism: it is in the accentuation of the words, in the fine passage with respect to modulation which Mr. King has quoted. The word *red* coming on the accented part of the 2d bar, and the word *was* in the 3d being accented, instead of the participle *dried*, manifest that the composer was a foreigner. We shall try to explain ourselves by longs and shorts over the syllables. " Hē rĕbūkĕd thĕ Rĕd | Sēa — | - ănd ĭt wăs drīĕd ūp." If accented thus, as in reading, the beautiful modulation would still remain uninjured.

The abrupt modulation, (p. 62.) pronounced to be the least agreeable, might, without the intermediate notes, be rendered more pleasing by a 7th added to the chords E and A, thus:

7 87
※ 5 ※ 5
C E F A Bb.

Part IV. *Analysis of Compositions.*

This useful mode of examining a musical composition in score, we believe, was first practised by *Padre Martini*, in his *Saggio di Contrappunto;* and, 2dly, in Italy, by *Paolucci*, in his *Arte pratica di Contrappunto.* Mr. Kollman has lately manifested much science and acute remark in this kind of analysis.

Pp. 68 and 69 are bestowed, by Mr. King, on the analysis of the simple, solemn, (when sung slow,) but monotonous air, " God save great George our King;" in which there is as little art in the composition as possible. The anatomy of such an air seems downright pedantry, little short of ridiculous. The melody itself has been rendered dear to Englishmen by its patriotism and loyalty, not by the science or genius manifested in its construction; and foreigners, who feel not that affection and fervent zeal which are excited by it in the minds of Englishmen, wonder at our attachment to such a simple tune. The metrical construction of the words of our national hymn determined the number of bars in each strain; not the want of science, we may fairly suppose, in the composer who set it to music.

The adagio in Corelli's XIth Sonata, op. IIda, has ever been justly admired; and to point out by what means it acquired and preserved that admiration, was a task which well merited the present author's analytical skill. We expected an observation on the 7th, bar 4, resolved on the 8th: but Mr. King either deemed it unexceptionable, or has overlooked this innocent breach of rule.

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The purity of the harmony in the minuet in Ariadne (p. 71.) is extremely grateful: but the reader must have made small progress in composition, if he wanted an analysis of this old favourite air, almost as artless and simple as "God save great George our King!" The introduction to Haydn's truly sublime and reverential instrumental *Passione*, however, was admirably selected. The boldness, force, pathos, and originality of this composition deserved Mr. King's pains and praises; and he could not have found, among the productions for instruments of modern times, a movement that more amply illustrates the rules of composition which he has laid down.

On the whole, though this treatise may not contain *all* that will be necessary for a musical student to know, either for the composition or performance of good music, it cannot be attentively read without profit; and we may venture to recommend it as a work of considerable merit and utility.

Dr B...y.

ART. IX. Miss Starke's *Letters from Italy, between the Years* 1792 *and* 1798.

[*Art. concluded from p.* 232.]

THE Second Volume of this entertaining work commences with the seventeenth letter, in which the account of the city of Rome is continued. Here we have a description of the *Piazza di San Pietro*—the *Vatican*—and *Basilica di S. Pietro.* From this last article, we shall present to our readers the dimensions of that stupendous structure, in order to enable them to compare it with the Cathedral of St. Paul's in London.

'The length of the middle aile from the entrance to the chair of St. Peter, 569 Paris feet—breadth 85—height 140—breadth of each side-aile, 20½ feet—length of the cross-aile, 408—height of the *baldacchino*, 84 feet. Interior diameter of the cupola, 130 feet—exterior ditto, 145 feet—height from the pavement to the top of the lanthern, 385 feet.'

We are next introduced to Mosaic manufactures, to churches, palaces, villas, and all that best merits examination out of the city gates.

Letter XVIII. *Excursion to Tivoli—San Cosimato—Horace's Villa—the Sabine farm—Villa Adriana—Palestrina—Grotto Ferrata* and *Frascati.* The fair writer concludes this letter with giving what appears to her to be the present character of the Romans.

'This people, (says she,) taken collectively, neither possess the worth of the Tuscans, nor the good-humoured buffoonery of the Neapolitans, though many individuals are extremely amiable. The nobles seldom trouble themselves to attain much erudition, but are

polite and kind to foreigners. Gentlemen belonging to the church and law are usually well-informed; it is, however, remarkable, that the most learned of these are not Romans. Tradesmen make no scruple of imposing upon foreigners, and the populace are not only inclined to cheat and thieve, but likewise to be savage, passionate, malicious, and revengeful. The people in general still retain much of their former haughty character; and the inhabitants of Trastevere (said actually to descend from the ancient Romans) are not only brave to ferocity, but so proud of their ancestors, that nothing can induce them to match with a person who does not boast the same origin.'

This character is not favourable to the Romans: yet Rome is to foreigners the most comfortable, as well as the most amusing and instructive residence on the globe.

Letter XIX. *Account of the Country between Rome and Naples.*

Letter XX. *Naples.*—This justly celebrated city, and its antiquities, modern works of art, churches, palaces, theatres, &c. &c. have been so often described, that it would be difficult to point out, in the work before us, any non-descript curiosities; we shall therefore only extract the character of the inhabitants, which, we think, is drawn with great accuracy and candour:

'The character of the Neapolitans has been much mistaken by travellers, who seem inclined to think the lower classes of people cunning, rapacious, profligate, and cruel; and the more exalted, ignorant, ill-bred, licentious, and revengeful; this, however, is not, generally speaking, true; for the common people are good-humoured, open-hearted, and though passionate, so fond of drollery, that a man in the greatest rage will suffer himself to be calmed by a joke: and though a Neapolitan sometimes does an injury from the first impulse of anger, that impulse past, he never harbours malice. Those among the common people who have mixed much with foreigners, are expert in bargains and eager to extort money; while those who have lived chiefly among each other display no such propensities: and what seems to indicate a noble disposition is, that they all may be governed by kind words, while a contrary language never fails to frustrate its own purpose. Gentlemen of the church, law, and army, are tolerably well educated; and in this middle rank may be found as much true friendship, as much sterling worth, and as many amiable characters, as in any nation whatsoever; neither are examples wanting, even among the nobility, of talents, erudition, and moral virtue; though the government of Naples is so despotic, and consequently so jealous of rising merit, that persons who really possess power to distinguish themselves seldom dare to exert it.'

Letter XXI. *Environs of Naples.—Excursion to Pompeii.*—As Miss Starke's account of the excavations in this subterraneous city is the most ample (according to our recollection) that has yet appeared in our language, we shall insert it for

the gratification of those of our readers who are curious in antiquities.

'Pompeii was buried under ashes and pumice-stones thrown out from Vesuvius, A. D. 79; and accidentally discovered by some peasants, A. D. 1750, as they were digging in a vineyard near the river Sarno. The excavation of this interesting city was attended with less trouble and expence than that of Herculaneum, it being buried only twelve or fifteen feet under ashes and pumice-stone.

'On quitting your carriage you go down a small descent to *the Soldiers' Barracks*, nearly an oblong-square, with a portico round it, supported by brick pillars stuccoed and painted, with several figures in armour engraved upon them, supposed to have been done by the Roman soldiers. The rooms within the portico are of various dimensions, some of the largest being about fifteen feet square; and in one of these (probably a prison,) iron stocks were found, with skeletons standing in them. This part of the city contains fragments of *an ancient Doric temple*, evidently of an anterior date, and in its appearance, far more simply majestic, than the rest of the yet excavated buildings: within this temple is an altar, and without-side, near the entrance, another. The building in general seems to have been composed of a sort of tufo formed by depositions from water, and the same with that of which the temples at Pæstum are built. Nearly adjoining to the Doric temple, is *an open theatre* originally lined throughout with beautiful white marble: that part which held the spectators is of a semi-circular form, and on either side, near the stage, is a consular-seat: the orchestra is enclosed within two straight walls, and divides the stage from the spectators: the stage is very wide, but so shallow, that little or no scenery could have been used; it had three entrances all in front, and behind were the green-room, &c. That part where the spectators sat, is built on the side of a hill, according to the custom of the Greeks, and on the top of this hill were covered colonades for the spectators to retire into when it rained—these colonades probably served at other times for a public walk, as they commanded a fine view of Capri, Stabia, &c. The different classes of people ascended this theatre by different stair-cases and lobbies, all of which seem to have been very convenient. Nearly adjoining to the just-described theatre is *another*, not so large, though in most respects similar, except that it is said to have been covered, but whether with an awning or a roof, does not appear. The *temple of Isis* is in higher preservation than many other of the ruins, and especially worth notice; for, to contemplate those altars from whence so many oracles have issued, to trace the very hiding-place into which the priests squeezed themselves when they spoke for the statue of the goddess, nay, to discover the secret stairs by which they ascended into the *sanctum sanctorum;* in short, to examine the construction of a temple evidently built long before Pompeii was destroyed, is surely a most interesting speculation. Instruments for sacrifice, candelabres, &c. with the skeletons of priests, thought to have been feasting at the time of the eruption, were found here. It appears that this temple had been destroyed by an earthquake previous to the general overthrow of the city, several stumps of columns which

seem originally to have supported the building being still discernible: this earthquake is mentioned by Seneca; it happened in the year 63. The pillars now standing are composed of brick stuccoed and painted, the capitals are the same—the whole building likewise is stuccoed, painted, and beautifully polished within and without—the floor is Mosaic. The houses already excavated are, generally speaking, on a small scale; most of them, however,. were evidently nothing more than shops, and the habitations of shopkeepers. Some few which seem to have belonged to persons of a higher class are adorned with a handsome portico in front, supported by Doric columns, a large entrance, or hall, with a fountain in its centre, and on the sides, bed-rooms which appear to have had little or no light except what came from the hall. In one house, which seems to have been three stories high, there are three halls, and three fountains; indeed, wherever there is one of these courts, or halls, there never fails to be a fountain in the middle of it. The pillars of every portico are composed of brick stuccoed and painted—the rooms are stuccoed, painted, and beautifully varnished—the roofs arched, with terraces on the top—the floors Mosaic, and scarce two of them alike. The windows were generally closed with wooden shutters; some few, however, had glass, which seems to have been thick, and not transparent—others had isinglass split into thin plates. The paintings in the shops and very small houses seem nearly as elegant as in the large ones. The houses usually pointed out to travellers contain—*First house*—a lion on the door-sill, in Mosaic—a fountain in the middle of the yard. *Second house*—various paintings, namely, a woman seated, reading a scroll—a landscape—comic and tragic masks—a pretty bed-room with paintings on the walls, representing Venus attired by the Graces, and Venus and Adonis—here, likewise, is a painting of a white stag fastened to a column, and an altar adorned with trophies emblematical of his death. *Third house*—two snakes, emblems of longevity, done in Mosaic at the entrance. *Fourth house*—SALVE "welcome," in Mosaic on the threshold, and a curious labyrinth, or table for playing at an ancient game, in the centre of one of the floors*—paintings representing an altar, with a cock prepared for sacrifice, and instruments for sacrifice lying by—a figure of Æsculapius, and another of Mars—a lady dressing her hair—fighting gladiators—a dancing Bacchante—a fine bull's head—fish—flowers—poultry—and Cupid playing on the tibia. In one of the houses likewise is a painting of a Grecian temple, adorned with twenty fluted Doric pillars. One of the shops (in appearance a soap-boiler's) had soap found in it—another shop evidently was a coffee-house, and the marks of the cups still remain upon the marble dresser. Without side of another shop are Hebrew characters, (not written with vowel-points) and other oriental characters, which do not seem to be Hebrew. The iron-work of a calash, apparently like those used at present in Naples, was found in the court of a house. The *city-gate* is highly interesting; here is the centry-box for the guard—a semi-circular seat in which the Romans

'* The two just-named Mosaics seem to indicate that this house was an inn.'

used

used to assemble and converse—and a couple of tombs—all in great measure perfect—near one of the tombs is a court containing a stone, on which the bodies of the dead were burnt; and on the walls of this court are large frightful earthen masks with weeping faces. The tomb contains one large and several small niches for urns; the large one is supposed to have been for the head of the family.—The *excavated villa* is more entire than any of the ruins yet laid open, several rooms, the garden and the cellar, being quite in their original state; the last contains wine-vessels cemented to the wall by the cinders which overwhelmed the city, and likewise filled with them. The paintings still remaining in this villa are beautiful—the hot and cold baths almost entire—the kitchen entire also—in short, by examining these apartments, you precisely ascertain the plan and manner of ornamenting a Roman country-house, which seems to differ very little from modern Italian villas, except that the stucco is infinitely finer than any we now see, as likewise are the colours and varnish laid over them. Pompeii was built and paved with lava; carriage-wheels have worn traces in the pavement, and these traces are only four feet wide; nevertheless so narrow are the streets already excavated that there is barely room sufficient for two carriages to pass each other; the streets have raised foot-ways on each side three feet broad.

'Perhaps the whole world does not exhibit so awful a spectacle as Pompeii; and when it was first discovered, when skeletons were found heaped together in the streets and houses, when all the utensils and even the very bread of the poor suffocated inhabitants, were discernible, what a speculation must this ill-fated city have furnished to a thinking mind!—To visit it even now is absolutely to live with the ancient Romans: and when we see houses, shops, furniture, fountains, streets, carriages, and implements of husbandry, exactly similar to those of the present day, we are apt to conclude that customs and manners have undergone but little variation for the last two thousand years. The custom of consulting augurs, and that of hiring persons to weep at funerals, are still kept up in the mountainous and secluded parts of Tuscany; and I have frequently seen the Tuscan cattle, when destined for slaughter, adorned with chaplets of flowers, precisely as the ancients used to adorn their victims for sacrifice. The Roman butchers, likewise, still wear the dress, and use the knife of heathen sacrificing priests. The old Roman custom of not eating above one regular meal a day, and that about the ninth hour of Italy, (three o'clock with us,) is kept up by many of the Italians: and during the month of May it is common to see shepherds dressed as in ancient times like Pan, Satyrs, &c. I do not, however, mean to infer from what I have said, that modern Italians equal the ancients in works of art; for, in this respect, there seems as much difference between the present race and their forefathers, as there was between the ancient Romans and their teachers, the Greeks.

'Not more than from forty to fifty skeletons have yet been found in Pompeii—one third of the town only, however, is yet uncovered; but the excavations are going on daily; and a new street with a noble portico have very lately been laid open.'

The discoveries in Herculaneum also are well detailed: but these have so often been described, that most readers, who have a taste for antiquity, must be already acquainted with them. In a note, beginning at p. 118, Miss S. has been so liberal to her readers, as to give them the most ample list of the contents of the *Museum at Portici*, derived from Herculaneum and Pompeii, that we have seen. It occupies nearly 12 pages, in a very small type.

The author's account of an excursion to Mount Vesuvius, with a description of the earthquake and eruption which overwhelmed *Resina* and *Torre-del-Greco*, is the more curious and interesting, because this tremendous event has happened so lately (in 1794): but we have not room to extract it.

Letter XXII. *Antiquities and Curiosities in the Environs of Naples. Excursions to the Islands of Proceda, Istria, and Capri.*

Letter XXIII. *Journey from Rome through Perugia to Florence.* At the termination of this letter, the author has unexpectedly favoured us with Hannibal's route into Italy.

Letter XXIV. *Journey from Florence to Dresden, through Bologna and Venice.* The two latter cities are slightly described: with an account of the pictures still left by the French at the former; and of the spoliation of the latter, not only of its pictures and statues, but of its shipping, military stores, famous antique bronze horses, and manuscripts. *Vienna—inns—public edifices—Royal Gallery of Pictures at the Belvidere* *; *Cities of Moravia and Prague, en passant.*

Letter XXV. *Dresden—Population—Architecture—Bridge—Religion—Character of the People—Inns—Picture Gallery.* The index to this immense collection, certainly the finest in Europe, is in few hands, besides those of travellers, and collectors of pictures and prints; and we do not remember to have seen it in any English book, except the account of it in Dr. Burney's German Tour †: it therefore usefully fills 10 or 12 pages of the present volume.

The remainder of the volume is occupied by *routes* from place to place—*inns—prices of provisions—carriages—fees for seeing palaces—pictures—directions for travelling*, &c. &c. which will render the work a very useful publication to future travellers; indeed it forms the best *Vade-mecum* and *Livre de Poste* which we recollect to have seen.

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* In describing the *Imperial* Gallery of Pictures, p. 218, the author applies the musical term *Bravura* to painting, in a way which to us seems new.

† Present State of Music in Germany, the Netherlands, &c. Vol. II.

Many

Many inaccuracies occur in the printing, besides those that are noticed by the author; and the table of contents is rendered almost useless by the omission of the page at which each letter begins; which, added to the want of the letters being numbered at the top of each page, occasions much trouble and loss of time to the reader who wishes to turn to any particular part.

Dr B...y.

ART. X. *Journal of a Voyage performed in the Lion Extra Indiaman,* from Madras to Columbo, and Da Lagoa Bay, on the Eastern Coast of Africa; (where the Ship was condemned;) in the Year 1798. With some Account of the Manners and Customs of the Inhabitants of Da Lagoa Bay, and a Vocabulary of the Language. By William White, Esq. Capt. in the 73d, Highland Regiment of Foot. Embellished with Plates. 4to. pp. 70. 7s. Boards. Stockdale. 1800.

THOUGH the information which this journal communicates is not in its nature either very important or very curious, yet we so seldom hear from this part of the coast of Africa, that we ought to be thankful for small offerings.

The author embarked at Madras on board of the Lion, a ship captured from the Dutch, and which he emphatically calls 'a rotten old patched up Dutch Indiaman'. She was nevertheless employed as an extra ship in the service of the English Company, and was freighted for Europe. Indeed, the vessel and her equipment seem to have been of a congenial nature, and such as a seaman would describe as a bundle of boards under a parcel of rags; such a ship as the very rats would instinctively have quitted.—Nothing material occurred till they were near the Cape of Good Hope; when they suffered so much from strong westerly winds, that they were obliged to seek shelter in Da Lagoa Bay; which they were fortunate enough to reach, almost contrary to expectation; having thrown overboard their guns and great part of the cargo, lost their fore and mizen masts, and the ship having been barely kept from falling to pieces by strong frappings and iron bars. Here she was surveyed, and condemned as unfit to proceed. Some vessels in the whale fishery, then in Da Lagoa Bay, were hired to take the remaining part of the cargo to England.

The want of materials, and a bad state of health, prevented the author from making a survey of the Bay: but a few nautical remarks are inserted, which were communicated to him by the Commander of a British Whaler. Captain White's account of the country, and of the inhabitants, is also very short. We shall extract from it a few particulars.

The

The Portuguese had a small fort at Da Lagoa Bay, which was lately destroyed by the French. The Bay is now frequented by vessels employed in the whale fishery; and the whales were very numerous while the author was there (from the 24th of June to the 21st July 1798.) It likewise abounds in a variety of very fine fish, all of a most excellent quality, much superior to any that the Captain had seen in India. The country is described as being extremely pleasant, with a rich and fruitful soil. Besides provisions,—ambergris, and the teeth of elephants and sea-cows, may be procured here in plenty. The best article for trading with the natives is coarse blue cloth: 'they are very partial to any kind of cloathing; hats are in great demand among them, and so are wigs. Several of King Capalleh's sons, about twelve or fourteen years old, used to come frequently on board the Lion, dressed out in old wigs, of which they were very proud.'—The inhabitants of Da Lagoa are Caffres, and are here described as a good natured, indolent people, great beggars, yet remarkably honest. 'They are all tattowed,' and their ornaments are of the rudest fashion. 'Polygamy is allowed, and they purchase their wives from the father.—Divorces are not in fashion, for the men are all faithful, and the women, though nearly naked, virtuous: and from particular enquiries among them, I found that they were surprised at my even asking such a question, telling me, *that woman, that man wife;* yet there are a class of them who come on ship board that lessen the general character.'

The people are not numerous; and, notwithstanding the fineness of the country, they sometimes experience great distress, which can only be attributed to their indolence, as they almost wholly neglect the cultivation of their lands. In times of scarcity, 'they feed their slaves taken in war on grass and water, and I saw some of them the poorest objects I ever beheld. They were perfectly destitute of every sort of cloathing, and had no food given them. I enquired how they could possibly subsist; one of the natives told me, *same as bullock.*' The natives work a whole day for a handful of sugar: but, though they have abundance of sugar cane, they are perfectly ignorant of the process of extracting the juice.

The King would not venture on board of the Lion, although much invited. 'I am certain (says Captain White) that his real reason was for fear of being kept prisoner till something valuable was given for his ransom, as I heard that he has been invited on board some ships and treated so. It is too true, that some of the natives who have worked on board some whalers for several weeks, when in want of hands, have been taken

taken away and sold for slaves at the Cape. I have heard them asked after by their friends and wives at Da Lagoa. The person is well known by many who were then there: a very infamous transaction, and should it be continued, may prove very serious to people going there: I am happy in stating that Earl Macartney, to whom I made known the circumstance, found some of them out, redeemed them from slavery, and they were to be sent to their native country by the first opportunity.'

From this brief abstract, the reader will conjecture that the present small work is not without entertainment. The plates are only two in number: the first representing two natives in their war dress; the other, natives smoaking.

Capt. B...y.

ART. XI. *Travels through several Provinces of Spain and Portugal; &c.* By Richard Croker, Esq. Captain in the late 99th Regiment of Foot. 8vo. pp. 316. 7s. Boards. Robson, &c. 1799.

THOUGH the object of these travels was not one of those literary pursuits, which, in this adventurous age, give birth to so many peregrinations, yet the candour, honesty, and good sense, which manifest themselves through the whole of Captain Croker's narration, render it an entertaining and in some parts instructive performance. The author had embarked with his regiment for Jamaica, on board of a West Indiaman which was taken by the French, in July 1780; and, in about a month afterward, he was set on shore at Cadiz, as a prisoner of war. From Cadiz he was sent, with other English Gentlemen who were in the same situation, to Arcos de la Frontera, one of the most unpleasant spots of Andalusia; and, after a residence of three months in that uncomfortable country-town, he obtained leave to return to his native land by the way of Portugal; in which kingdom he remained a fortnight, or little more, and arrived in England in the month of January following.

It appears to us that Capt. Croker relates with fidelity, and certainly in an impressive manner which demands credit, all that he has seen and experienced: but he seems to rely, in some parts, on the information which he received from others, with more good-nature than critical examination. For instance, in his analysis of the national character of the Portuguese (p. 296), which is too deep and detailed for a fortnight's acquaintance, and too little varied for a large community of European people.—In some parts of the work, we have met with very sensible reflections, from which we have derived both pleasure and instruction; and among these we may mention the seventh Letter,

written from on board of the Bourgogne French man of war, in which Capt. C. was then a prisoner. The difference of the British and French naval discipline, as existing during the last war, is there considered in its causes and effects, with such good sense and ingenuity, that we shall transcribe the letter:

'Dear Sir, *Burgogne at Sea, Aug.* 21, 1780

'Having walked on the quarter-deck for some time this afternoon with Monsieur le Brigadier Marin, amidst various groups of sailors, soldiers, &c. &c. some employed at cards, some eating their messes of beans and oil, and others in less respectable modes, so as to impede the passage along the deck of this very large ship; not one individual shewing any mark of respect or attention to the Captain; I was naturally led to consider the difference of internal management and discipline observed on board a British and a French ship of war. This difference seems more extraordinary, as it is contradictory to the genius and government of each respective Nation.

'The British system of government is mild and free; yet, on board a British ship of war, the strictest discipline prevails. Every rank has its distance; and subordination is exactly preserved. The Captain, the Lieutenants, the Midshipmen, and Warrant Officers, all feel their consequence and superiority. Every officer, Petty-officer, Seaman, and Marine, has his allotted post and duty. No useless hand impedes or discourages the general union and service. The plan is so perfect, that the least deviation from it discovers itself, and is immediately corrected. The Captain's table is almost always hospitable; his officers are his frequent guests, by invitation; improper familiarities are sedulously discouraged; every individual seems to know his proper post, and to maintain it.

'The French government approaches to despotism; and has been found, in some instances, severe: but on board a French ship there is not even the appearance of discipline or order; every man follows his own invention in his own way. As these ships are more numerously manned than British ships of equal rate, the mischief is increased in proportion

'After the deduction of about half the number of the crew, as sailors, marines, and cannoniers (a very useful order of men on board ships of war, and an improvement well worth the attention of the British Admiralty), the remainder are a mere rabble, food for powder, useful only *fabas consumere*.

'To this want of necessary order it is owing, that a landsman sent on board a French ship of war seldom becomes a seaman. To the consequent abundance of useless hands may be ascribed the great disproportion of killed and wounded in actions between ships of equal force; and that, invariably, against the French. All ranks of officers seem to be thrown together. The Captain receives an allowance to support a table, where all officers, from the Captain to the Midshipman, live together. This induces a degree of familiarity by no means favourable to the discipline of their navy. I am told, that the allowance of the Captain is extended to officers that happen to be taken and continue prisoners on board his ship. This is liberal.—In the explanation

explanation of signals, certainly of great consequence on board all ships of war, but particularly difficult in the French navy from their infinitely various and complex nature, *la Jeunesse*, the Captain's boy, is generally the first to give an opinion; and his opinion seems to have more weight than that of any other person in the ship. To this contrasted conduct we owe, in no small degree, the pre-eminent excellence and superiority of the British navy.

'To the method of manning ships by pressing, much is also due. I am convinced that it would be impossible to form an adequate number of seamen for the service of the navy by any other means. When the ship of the merchant has performed her voyage, the crew are taken into the navy. The merchant must find other men, before his ship can again proceed to sea. From the necessity of the case, the number of apprentices is greatly increased; young and active men, encouraged by the bounty and wages that are offered, leave the plough and the loom, to brave the ocean and its dangers. The ships of the merchant are so thinly manned in time of war, that landsmen must render themselves useful; consequently soon become, in some degree, seamen: these, in their turn, are removed to the navy, where discipline and example finish what the necessity of the merchant service had begun. By these means a new race of seamen is continually brought forward; and the longer the war lasts, the greater number of this useful body of men is formed for the public service. I am aware that this practice has been considered as bearing hard on the feelings of individuals; nor can the harshness of the measure be justified, but from the necessity of war, in the present state of Europe, as the means of self-defence; but, placing for a moment the *Res publica* out of the question, it must be allowed, that seamen of necessity get their living on board ships, that their provisions are better, and more liberally supplied, in the king's service, than in that of the merchant; their labours and hardships are less severe, and their profits, taking in the chance of prize money, perhaps, not very unequal; that, to give an option to these habitual inconsiderate men is putting a dangerous weapon into their hands, which generally turns against themselves. Abuses certainly exist in the management of this service; but to object, is easier than to remedy.

'I have to-day, with Monsieur le Brigadier, visited this ship between decks; a very considerable part of it appears to be adapted to culinary purposes. It is astonishing what attention is here paid to the article of eating. Every kind of viand is provided for the *grand chambre;* even veal, pigeons, and rabbits—soft bread is baked twice in a week; and, as I am told, served to all the ship's company. It has been observed, that Englishmen take more animal food than Frenchmen; the contrary is so evident here, that it is our general opinion, that, taking the mess together, the French exceed us, in that particular, in the proportion of three to one at least.

'The allowance of salted provision to the ship's company is very small. Dried French beans, or caravances, stewed and mixed with oil, highly seasoned with garlick—these, with bread, make the chief part of their diet.

'We

'We still continue to cruize off the Cape of St. Vincent, in good health and tolerable spirits; and I remain,

'Your most faithful, R. C.'

Similar passages occur, but they are not susceptible of a satisfactory abstract, and we therefore refer our readers to the book itself *; from the perusal of which, we are persuaded, they will derive as much information and pleasure as we ourselves have received.

Cor. a.

ART. XII. *Imitations of original Drawings by Hans Holbein,* in the Collection of his Majesty, for the Portraits of illustrious Persons of the Court of Henry VIII. with Biographical Tracts. Published by John Chamberlaine, Keeper of the King's Drawings and Medalss, and F. S. A. Large Folio. Thirteen Numbers. To Subscribers, 2l. 2s. each; to Non-subscribers, 2l. 12s. 6d. each Number. Nicol. 1792—1800.

WE have already announced to the public the commencement of this splendid work, and we promised to enter more minutely into its merits when it should be completed †. It is now brought to a conclusion; and, in our estimation, it is one the most magnificent books that we have ever seen, whether we consider the genius of the painter, or the admirable talents of the engraver.

Hans Holbein, of whom several accounts have been written, was born at Basil in the year 1498; and he was recommended by Erasmus to Sir Thomas More, who kindly received him into his house at Chelsea; where he worked nearly three years, drawing the portraits of Sir Thomas, his relations, and his friends. Lord Orford relates that "the King, visiting the Chancellor, saw some of those pictures, and expressed his satisfaction.—Sir Thomas begged him to accept which ever he liked—but he enquired for the painter, who was introduced to him. Henry immediately took him into his own service, and told the Chancellor, that now he had got the artist, he did not want the pictures. An apartment in the palace was immediately allotted to Holbein, with a salary of 200 florins, besides his being paid for his pictures: the price of them I no where find."

This distinguished painter remained in England till the time of his death, which was occasioned by the plague in the year 1554. Of the originals from which the present collection is formed, we find the following account in the first volume of

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* Captain C.'s account of the culture of the vine, in Spain, would probably be acceptable to some of our horticulturists: but we have not room for it.

† See M. Rev. vol. xxv. N. S. p. 232.

Lord

Lord Orford's Anecdotes of Painting; which we present to our readers, in order that they may have at one view every important particular relating to a work which, we think, reflects such high honour on the age and nation which produced it.

"At present, an invaluable treasure of the works of this master is preserved in one of our palaces. Soon after the accession of the late King, Queen Caroline found in a bureau at Kensington a noble collection of Holbein's original drawings for the portraits of some of the chief personages of the court of Henry VIII. How they came there is quite unknown; after Holbein's death they had been sold into France, from whence they were bought, and presented to Charles I. by Mons. Liancourt. Charles changed them with William Earl of Pembroke for a St. George by Raphael, now at Paris. Lord Pembroke gave them to the Earl of Arundel; and at the dispersion of that collection they might be bought by, or for the king. There are eighty-nine of them, a few of which are duplicates. A great part are exceedingly fine, and in one respect preferable to his finished pictures, as they are drawn in a bold and free manner, and, though they have little more than the outlines, being drawn with chalk, upon a paper stained of a flesh colour, and scarce shaded at all, there is a strength and vivacity in them equal to the most perfect portraits. The heads of Sir Thomas More, Bishop Fisher, Sir Thomas Wyat, and Broke Lord Cobham, are master-pieces."

We are also informed by the same eminent writer, that the pictures were first placed by the Queen at Richmond, but afterward removed to Kensington, where they still remain: but this, as his Lordship observes, "is a very improper place for them, many of them hanging against the light, or with scarce any, and some so high as not to be discernible; especially a most graceful head of the Duchess of Suffolk."—In addition to the above account, Mr. Chamberlaine informs us that they were brought from Kensington to the Queen's house early in the present reign, and, by his Majesty's order, were taken out of the frames in which they had most injudiciously been suffered to remain for some years, and were bound up in two volumes. Some, according to Lord Orford, have been rubbed, and others traced over with a pen on the outlines, by some unskilful hands. In an old inventory belonging to the family of Lumley, mention was made of such a book in that family; with a remarkable note, that it had belonged to Edward VI. and that the names of the persons were written on them by Sir John Cheke. Most of these drawings have names in an old hand; and the probability of their having been written by a minister of the court, who so well knew the persons represented, is an addition to their value.—Before he quits the subject of these exquisite productions, Lord Orford remarks

that

that " it is great pity that they have not been engraved, not only that such frail performances of so great a genius might be preserved, but that the resemblances of so many illustrious persons, no where else existing, might be saved from destruction. Vertue," continues his Lordship, " had undertaken this noble work, and after spending three years on it, broke off, I do not know why, after having traced off on oil-paper but about five-and-thirty. These I bought at his sale; and they are so exactly taken as to be little inferior to the originals."

That which was begun and discontinued by Vertue has been most happily completed by the genius and perseverance of Bartolozzi; who, in this work, presents to us engravings which have retained in so wonderful a degree the taste, the beauty, and the manner of the original, that the noble Lord whom we have quoted, and whose authority may be trusted in questions of taste, declared that he considered the copy as superior to the picture. This was, indeed, exalted praise for an engraver who was following the pencil of Holbein!

In the number which completes this grand undertaking, Mr. Chamberlaine has given an alphabetical list of the portraits contained in the work, which are eighty in number; and to render his publication still more perfect, copies have been made of the portraits of Holbein and his wife painted by himself, (which were presented by Sir Robert Walpole to Queen Caroline,) and of the two children of Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk, from the originals in his Majesty's collection. These last are exquisite miniatures. " Holbein's miniatures (says Lord Orford) have all the strength of oil colours joined to the most finished delicacy; he generally painted on a green ground: in his small pictures often on a deep blue." The two here introduced are of the latter description.

Mr. Chamberlaine makes the following handsome acknowlegements to the persons by whose assistance the work has been promoted.

' To the late Horace Walpole, Earl of Orford, he is obliged by several communications, and for the trouble he took in concerting, with Mr. Nicol, the plan of this publication. To the late Sir William Musgrave, he is under obligations for much information, particularly for catalogues of portraits painted by Holbein from those drawings, pointing out in whose possession the pictures are at present. To Thomas Astle, Esq. and Francis Douce, Esq. he is also obliged for various communications. The readers of the biographical sketches that accompany this work, will readily, he is convinced, see the propriety of having employed Edmund Lodge, Esq. Lancaster Herald, in drawing up these tracts; in which he has displayed a great share of professional knowledge and information, collected from the College of Arms, and other authentic archives.

Every

Every man of taste must discern how much the beauty of this work is indebted to that inimitable artist Francis Bartolozzi, Esq., and it would be unjust to withhold Mr. Bulmer's share of praise in the typographical part of the publication.'

Among the portraits introduced into this collection, we perceive the distinguished names of Colet, Dean of St. Paul's; Melanchton; Sir John More; Sir Thomas More; and Archbishop Warham, the friend and patron of Erasmus. In allusion to the drawing of the Chancellor More, and in a comparison of the respective merits of Holbein and Quintin Matsis, (the celebrated blacksmith-painter, whose tools, it has been said, Love converted into pencils,) Lord Orford has justly and happily remarked:

"Holbein was equal to dignified character, he could express the piercing genius of More, or the grace of Ann Boleyn. Employed by More, Holbein was employed as he ought to be. This was the happy moment of his pencil; from painting the author, he rose to the philosopher, and then sunk to work for the king. I do not know a single countenance into which any master has poured greater energy of expression than in the drawing of Sir Thomas More at Kensington *. It has a freedom, a boldness of thought, and an acuteness of penetration, that attest the sincerity of the resemblance. It is Sir Thomas More in the vigour of his sense, not in the sweetness of his pleasantry—Here he is the unblemished magistrate, not that amiable philosopher, whose humility neither power nor piety could elate, and whose mirth even martyrdom could not spoil. Here he is rather that single, cruel judge, whom one knows not how to hate, and who, in the vigour of abilities, of knowledge, and good humour, persecuted others in defence of superstitions that he himself had exposed; and, who capable of disdaining life at the price of his sincerity, yet thought that God was to be served by promoting an imposture; who triumphed over Henry and Death, and sunk to be the accomplice, at least the dupe, of the Holy Maid of Kent!"

It is out of our power to present our readers with a specimen of the most valuable part of this publication, by exhibiting the engravings: but we must still do all that we can to give them a competent idea of the work, by assuring them that the ornaments are executed by Bartolozzi in his best manner; and by reminding them that the circumstance of their being all executed by one artist, and such an artist, unavoidably gives a degree of beauty and consistency to the performance, which no other can boast. We shall also make an extract or two from the text, (or rather the *illustrations*, since the portraits must be considered as the text,) that the public may be enabled to judge of the literary merit here manifested; and we select the

* Preserved in this collection.

biographical sketches of *Colet* Dean of St. Paul's, and *Warham* Archbishop of Canterbury:

'The lives of those of the fifteenth century, who were remarkable only for their learning, afford but little to engage the attention even of the learned in our days; for the labours of those voluminous writers who recorded all the quarrels of all the councils, are now almost as much neglected as the solemn riddles of John Scotus and Thomas Aquinas, and their readers have sunk with them. The first purpose of learning in that time was to enable men to read what they could not understand; and the perfection of it was to be found in their attempts to understand what was unintelligible. As Dr. Colet's literature savoured much of these foibles, we shall be excused for passing it over nearly in silence; yet it is but justice to his memory to own, that he was somewhat inclined to differ from the old school, and would, perhaps, have directly opposed it, had he lived some years longer.

'He was born in 1466, the eldest of the twenty-two children of Sir Henry Colet, an Alderman of London, by his wife Christian, whose family name is unknown, and who had the singular ill fortune to survive the whole of her numerous progeny. His education for the holy profession in which he afterwards distinguished himself, was begun in London, matured at Magdalen College in Oxford, and perfected in France and Italy, where his profound knowlege of divinity is said to have stood unrivalled.—After his return from his travels, he settled again at Oxford, where he contracted a strict intimacy with the admirable Erasmus, who was then studying there, and whose subsequent correspondence with him contains an history of his character, and in some measure of his life. We gather from thence, that he was a man of sanguine temperament; high-spirited and hasty: inclined to the luxuries of the table, and gay conversation, and by no means insensible to impressions still softer. These faults, however, he corrected by temperance, and by a severe application to his studies; and, says Erasmus expressly, "*Virginitatis florem ad mortem usque servavit.*"

'In 1493, he was admitted a Prebendary of York, and 1502, of Salisbury; and three years after, was promoted, without interest or application, to the Deanery of St. Paul's. Here he became remarkable for a most correct observance of his pastoral duties; and, in addition to his own personal services, drew together the most eminent scholars and divines of the time, to read lectures in his cathedral, of which number Erasmus himself was one. Amidst these pious labours for the living, he formed a noble plan for the benefit of thousands yet unborn, and had the happiness to carry it into execution, the foundation of St. Paul's school. This lasting monument to his fame he erected at the expence of four thousand five hundred pounds; entrusted the government of the school to the Mercers' Company, of which his father had been a member, and gave the charge of education to the famous grammarian William Lilly.

'His health soon after declined, and from three repeated attacks of the sweating sickness, he fell into a consumption. Incapacitated by this infirmity from performing the offices of his function,

tion, he retired to the monastery of the Carthusians at Shene; and, having languished for some months, died there on the 16th of September 1519, and was buried in his cathedral church of St. Paul.

'It may be proper to observe, that if Holbein drew this head from the life, he must have been in England at a much earlier age than has been supposed, for he was an infant when Colet returned from his travels, and was scarcely twenty-one years old at the time of the Dean's death. It is not improbable, however, that a portrait of the Dean had been made while he was abroad, by some Italian painter, and that the drawing before us was copied from it by Holbein, with that enchanting grace and spirit which only his hand could give.'

The portrait is, indeed, an exquisite one, scarcely exceeded in merit by any in the collection; the quickness and vivacity, expressed in the countenance, are finely contrasted with the dignified and serious, though somewhat gloomy expression observable in the face of Archbishop Warham; of whom Mr. Lodge gives the following account:

'William Warham, the son of Robert Warham, a gentleman of a good family in Hampshire, was born at Okeley in that county about the year 1456. He received his education in Winchester school, and at New College in Oxford; and through the merit of his learning, especially in the civil law, obtained some respectable appointments in that university while yet a young man. He afterwards practised with much reputation and success as an advocate in the Court of Arches, and soon after his coming to London became well known at court, and acquired no small degree of favour with Henry the Seventh, who delighted in civilians, and thought them the only men for the management of niceties in state affairs, particularly in those of foreign negociations. Warham was accordingly sent in 1493, with Sir Edward Poynings, on an embassy to Philip Duke of Burgundy, the protector of Perkin Warbeck, to persuade him to give up that impostor; and discharged his mission so well, that Henry at his return appointed him Master of the Rolls. He sat in that office for nine years; a delay of preferment which was amply compensated for by the rapidity with which he afterwards rose to the most exalted situations in church and state; for, on the 11th of August 1502, the great seal was delivered to him, as Lord Keeper; within a few weeks after he was installed Bishop of London; on the 1st of January following was appointed Lord Chancellor, and in the ensuing March was translated to Canterbury; to these high offices was added the dignity of Chancellor of that university which had contributed to qualify him for them, to which he was elected on the 28th of May 1506.

'His royal patron dying not long after the latter period, a new master succeeded; and presently Wolsey, a new planet, or rather comet, in the sphere of English politics, appeared, and soon eclipsed all competitors for favour. The simple and sober character of Warham by no means fitted him for contention with one whose vivacity and ardour in the execution of his schemes were equal to the ambition and subtilty with which they were laid. Wolsey began by in-

fringing on the dignified distinctions of the primacy; proceeded to deny the Archbishop's ecclesiastical jurisdiction in its most important points; and finally deprived him of it, by procuring from the Pope that famous commission of Legate *a latere*, which invested himself in a great measure with the government of the Anglican church, as well in its temporal as spiritual affairs. Thus persecuted, Warham resigned the seals in 1515, and the King delivered them to Wolsey. The Archbishop now retired from all public business, except that of his church; and, having passed several years in his diocese, in a faithful discharge of the duties of his high calling, and with such carelessness of worldly matters that he left scarcely enough to pay his debts, died there on the 23d of August 1532, and was buried in his cathedral.

'As the character of Archbishop Warham wanted those bold features which history so readily records, it has been but slightly touched on. As a churchman, he seems to have been pious, conscientious, and sincere; zealous for the persuasion in which he had been bred, and occasionally giving the worst proofs of that zeal in instances of intolerant severity; as a statesman, rather esteemed for experience and honesty than for acuteness; as a judge, laborious in his attention to the business of the court, and pure in his administration of justice; as a man, mild, chearful, affable, and benevolent. If we may not reckon him with the greatest, he may certainly be esteemed among the best public men of the age in which he flourished. Holbein's picture, after this drawing, remains in the Archbishop's palace at Lambeth.'

We were surprized to find no mention, in this account, of the intimate friendship which subsisted between the Archbishop and Erasmus; nor any allusions to the praises bestowed on the former by the latter, in various parts of his works. In his 135th Epistle, he says: "*Insigni benignitate me prosequuntur cum alii permulti, tum præcipue Mæcenas ille meus unicus, Archiepiscopus Cantuariensis, imo non meus, sed omnium eruditorum, inter quos ego postremas teneo, si modo ullas teneo. Deum immortalem! quam felix, quam fæcundum, quam promptum hominis ingenium? quanta in maximis explicandis negotiis dexteritas? quam non vulgaris eruditio? Tum autem quam inaudita in omnes comitas? quanta in congressu jucunditas? ut, quod vere regium est, neminem a se tristem dimittat. Ad hæc, quanta quamque alacris liberalitas? Postremo, in tanta fortunæ dignitatisque præcellentia, quam nullum supercilium? ut solus ipse magnitudinem suam ignorare videatur. In amicis tuendis nemo neque fidelior neque constantior. In summa, vere Primas est, non solum dignitate, verum et in omni genere laudis.*" In his *Ecclesiast.* T.V. c. 8vo. is a fuller and more detailed character of the Archbishop; whom Burnet characterizes as "a great canonist, an able statesman, a dextrous courtier, and a favourer of learned men."—We are inclined to think that, in several instances, in which the subjects were celebrated, these

these biographical sketches might have been enlarged with advantage.

We trust that our readers will excuse our having dwelt thus long on a work, the *sight* of which alone has given us great pleasure. The splendour and consequent costliness of the publication (with the addition of the portraits of Holbein and his wife, and the two miniatures, the price to non-subscribers is thirty-six guineas,) will prevent the volume from being in general circulation, and will both account for and justify our desire to give an early and a full report of its contents.

S.R.

ART. XIII. Mr. Planta's *History of the Helvetic Confederacy.*

[*Article concluded from page* 161—178.]

IN commencing the second volume of this work, we approach the period at which the history of Helvetia mingles itself with, and ultimately (as it were) loses itself in that of other states. We are to see its people for a short time, indeed, act up to their antient characters, and atchieving splendid events: but we next behold them as allies, and lastly we hear of them only as mercenaries. In what remains of his task, therefore, the Helvetic historian can no longer interest by novelty of matter; nor does the subject retain the same dignity, and afford the same satisfaction. Helvetia ceases, very soon, to be the region in which men of invincible bravery, of primitive manners, of sentiments pure as the crystal streams issuing from their glaciers, and of integrity and honor as unshaken as their native mountains, are seen spurning the oppressor's yoke, breaking his bands, defying his prowess, and baffling all his attempts to force or induce them to resume their chains. The Temple of Freedom is soon to be converted into a Theatre for Gladiators, formed to be let out for hire to combat in the destructive games of ambition.—It is true that Helvetia did not all at once leap into the arms of disgrace; it required time, as well as consummate address, to familiarize her to what was so contrary to the feelings and habits of her better days. It must be admitted that measures most honourable to her, and deeds full of glory, attracted the notice and awoke the wishes of a crafty seducer, and gave rise to the machinations by which he undermined Helvetic virtue. Like other wanderers, she does not deviate from her former paths without exhibiting, at times, her qualms of conscience, her fits of repentance, and her gusts of good resolution: but these weaken by degrees; and she settles down to a commerce, than which nothing more dis-

graceful is recorded in the annals of human depravity,—a commerce in the blood of her children. Do speculatists, with great force of reasoning, maintain that all wars, except for self-defence, are contrary to morals and true religion? What shall we say, then, of a people who furnish warriors for gold, who lend them to every cause indiscriminately? This disgrace of Helvetia is not to be disputed, nor palliated: yet justice requires that we should add, that it is almost the sole offence with which this people are chargeable.

The period on which we are entering exhibits to our view two remarkable men, whose actions and fate have had eminent influence over the subsequent state of Europe; *Lewis the XIth of France*, and *Charles the Bold*, the last Duke of Burgundy. The former was a monster in private life, and callous to every principle, but possessed of extraordinary discernment as to what respected the interests of his crown; who, before Machiavelli wrote, reduced to practice all his rules; so that he might have served the same end in politics to that ingenious writer, that Homer and the Greek tragedians are said to have done to Aristotle in matters of taste. Not only, as it has been said, did he set himself and his successors *hors de page*, but he did the same by his kingdom. Without striking a blow on his own part, without incurring the expences or risking the hazards of war, he effected the destruction of a rival more powerful and wealthy than himself; namely the abovementioned Duke of Burgundy: who, though valorous and high-minded, and at the head of one of the first states in Europe, yet, by unskilful and headlong measures, brought down ruin on himself and his house, and involved his subjects in endless calamities.

Chap. III. of Book II. (the first of this volume) details the particulars of the grand cabinet atchievement of Lewis XI., and records the feats of Helvetic valour at Granson and Morat, and the fall of Charles before Nancy. In the battle which takes its name from that city, the ill-fated Prince, when he saw that all was lost, resolved to engage in person.

'He rushed among the combatants with the fury of a lion, and slew many with his own hand; but most of his people, especially the cavalry, having now forsaken him, and seeing himself entirely abandoned, he determined to consult his own safety, and rode full speed towards the road that leads to Metz. Being hard pressed by his pursuers, he attempted to leap over a ditch; but his weary horse being unable to clear it, they both fell into the trench, and here Charles met his fate from hands unconscious of the importance of the life they were abridging. After having been some time missing, his body was found among other dead in the ditch, and conveyed to Nancy. His head is said to have been cloven asunder, and he had two other wounds, each of which was mortal. He was interred with solemn

solemn pomp at Nancy; but seventy three years after, his remains were transferred to Bruges, to be deposited in the same tomb with those of his daughter Mary. Most of the Burgundian nobility, who had not fallen at Granson or Morat, were here either killed or taken; and a third Burgundian camp became the prey of the victorious enemy.'

Thus fell the Duke of Burgundy; and thus was brought about an event, the consequences of which Europe feels to this very day. A small part of his territories went to the secret author of his ruin: but the greater was conveyed by his daughter, on her marriage, to the House of Austria, now growing to a height of power unequalled since the days of Charlemagne. —It has often been asked why Lewis the XIth did not secure the whole of the Burgundian territories, by marrying the Dauphin to the heiress: but it is not easy to solve this question. Could he have foreseen what has happened since in Europe, with the bloodshed and calamities which these provinces were to occasion, we might have supposed that he sacrificed the interests of his crown to the gratification of his malignant feelings. What seeds of contention have these provinces nourished! Witness the wars in which Spain exhausted the wealth of the Indies; in which our Elizabeth displayed *masterly* policy; in which so many great commanders gained immortal fame; and which employed the elegant pens of Bentivoglio and Strada. Witness the repeated wars maintained by the different powers of Europe, to prevent Belgium from falling into the hands of France; wars in which the greatest generals of modern times have earned their dearly-bought laurels.

The IVth Chapter relates the events of the sanguinary contest between the Helvetic Confederacy, and the Suabian League. This war owed its origin to the attempts of the Imperial tribunals to renew their jurisdiction over Helvetia. Its deplorable effects will appear from the following brief extract:

'The Tyrol at this time was in such a deplorable state of desolation, that an imperial officer, who was conducting a detachment through the country, among many scenes of misery and horror, saw two old women driving some hundreds of half-naked and emaciated children before them, who on arriving at a field less wasted than the remainder of the country, threw themselves down and browsed the grass like cattle. He was told that most of them were orphans, whose fathers had been killed, and mothers starved; and that they had for some time had no other nourishment: the old women added, that many of them perished daily; and that shortly they must all, the children as well as themselves, fall miserable victims to hunger and disease.'

By the peace of Basle, which terminated this most destructive struggle, the empire renounced all jurisdiction within the territories

tories of the Confederacy; the independence of which was, therefore, at this time, virtually acknowleged; though this was not formally done till the peace of Westphalia.

Chap. V. narrates the transactions of Milan, from its first invasion by Lewis XII. to the battle of Biccoca. Few human minds are altogether free from national prejudices; and the present philosophic and candid historian shews himself, in this chapter, to be not a little biassed by their influence. The Swiss atchievement at Novarra is related as if within the regular course of events: but when we come to Marignan, where the author's countrymen are defeated, the event in his view of it is a phænomenon of most difficult solution. A great number of particulars are brought together, in order to explain and account for the prodigy; and he appears to consider these preliminaries as necessary, in order to render it credible that the French were victorious in a battle with the Swiss. The succeeding reflections, so consoling to national pride, follow the mortifying narrative:

'All historians however, agree that few battles have ever been so obstinate, furious, and destructive. The king, impressed with a sense of the magnitude of the danger he had surmounted, ordered masses to be celebrated three successive days on the field of battle, and caused a chapel to be erected on the spot in memory of the victory: and the veteran Marshal Trivulci, discoursing on this event, ever declared that he had been present at eighteen pitched battles; that all except this had been children's play, but that this had been a *battle of giants.*'

That the reader may form some idea of the connection which so long subsisted between the Helvetic Confederacy and France, we lay before him the following extract:

'At length however, on the twenty-ninth of November of the succeeding year, a general pacification was concluded at Friburg, by which the French king, as Duke of Milan, ceded for ever to the cantons the possession of the transalpine bailiwicks, and the provinces of Valteline, Chiavenna, and Bormio, to the Grisons, with an option, however, of their surrendering their principal castles in those districts to the French king for the sum of three hundred thousand crowns: all the privileges that had ever been held by the Confederates in the kingdom of France, were revived and confirmed: the payments stipulated by the convention of Dijon were ratified, with the addition of a free gift of three hundred thousand crowns to the whole Helvetic body, and an annual subsidy of two thousand livres to each of the cantons, to the Valais, and to the Grison leagues. This compact was declared to be perpetual, and has in fact been the basis of the many leagues that have ever after been made between the crown of France and the Helvetic confederacy.'

The

The VIth Chapter treats of the affairs of the Confederacy during the period of the reformation; the character of which is well drawn in the short passage here quoted:

'Religious dissensions unsheathed the sword, and gave rise to animosities and calamities, which for many years perplexed and tormented a large portion of the human race; and armed men against each other, who, had they been influenced by the charity which was the basis of their faith, would have reconciled their jarring opinions with soothing toleration, and left the world at peace.'

What was the state of that infidelity of which we hear so many complaints, in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, at the æra of the reformation? How far did those go, who preceded Luther and were advocates of reformation, yet were deemed sound members of the church? We are of opinion that the investigation of these points might throw some new light on this great event, often and ably as it has been treated; and certainly by no one better than by the incomparable Sleidan. Mr. Planta agrees with those who have preceded him, as to the causes which brought about this singular revolution in human affairs; the chief of which were, the oppressions exercised by the Romish Hierarchy, the wealth and power which it had amassed, the claims which it arrogated, and the ignorance and bad lives of its clergy. A specimen of the ignorance of that body will be found in the following passage:

'The generality of the priesthood did not scruple to acknowledge their deficiency in the most elementary parts of learning. The canons of the collegiate church of Zuric having to notify an election to the Bishop of Constance, confessed that they transmitted it in the handwriting of their notary, because several of them could not write. In the examinations for holy orders, it was deemed amply sufficient that the candidate could read, and tolerably comprehend what he read: even after the reformation had made some progress, the people firmly believed, and the priests confirmed them in the persuasion, that the bells travelled every passion week to Rome to receive fresh baptism; and that the exorcisms of priests could effectually dispel swarms of locusts, and all manner of insects. When, at an assembly of the clergy in the Valais, mention was made of the Bible, only one of the priests had ever heard of such a book: and several, on other occasions, did not scruple to declare, that it would be an advantage to religion if no gospel were extant; and that the study of the Greek and Hebrew languages greatly savoured of heresy.'

Of the state of morals, the following extract will give an idea;

'All men must feel a painful conviction when they learn, from the charges that were brought by the citizens of Lausanne against their clergy, that the priests used often, even in the churches, and in the midst of divine service, to strike the persons to whom they bore ill will, some of whom had actually died of their wounds: that they walked

walked the streets at night, disguised in military dresses, brandishing naked swords, and insulting the peaceful inhabitants: and that the frequent rapes, violences, and insults they committed were never punished or even restrained. The following are the words of the eighteenth article: "we have also to complain of the canons, that they reduce the profits of our town brothel, several of them carrying on the traffic of prostitution in their own houses, which they throw open to new comers of all descriptions." It is no small corroboration of the merited clamours raised against the clergy, that their own zealous advocate and protector, Charles the Fifth, publickly declared to them, that if their lives had been less reproachable, they would never have had to contend with a Martin Luther.'

In a note, we meet with this anecdote of Leo X.:

'In his hours of recreation he would admit two buffoons, disputing before him concerning the immortality of the soul; and after they had used a variety of facetious arguments, he often determined in favour of him who maintained the negative.

Zwinglius appears to us to have exceeded the other leaders of the reformation, in comprehensive and enlightened views, united with correct and moderate sentiments; he was not less pious, learned, or intrepid, and he was more moderate and tolerant. The revered name of this chief ornament of his cause first occurs in the following passage:

'Ulric Zwinglius of Wildenhaus, in the district of Tockenburg, after pursuing his studies at Berne, Vienna, and Basle, and being appointed parochial priest at Glaris, in more determined and unequivocal terms than any of his predecessors or contemporaries, urged the absolute necessity of investigating the Scriptures, in order to restore the church to its pristine purity. We learn from himself that he began to preach the gospel in the sixteenth year of this century, in which year he was removed to the parish of Einsidlin; and though many have co-operated with him in the great enterprize, yet having been the first who was willing to be considered as a professed separatist from the church of Rome, he may with reason be considered as the apostle of the reformation in Swisserland.'—

We learn that his 'object, which was to reform the manners of the people, as well as the errors of the church, had incurred much odium among the more considerable of his countrymen, by the severity with which he inveighed against all foreign pensions, subsidies, and military services, which he represented as the fatal sources of the great progress that vice and immorality had of late made among them. Neither could this enmity, nor yet the threats, promises, or caresses of Pope Adrian the Sixth, who had now succeeded Leo, and who alternately used all these means to moderate his zeal, divert him from his fixed purpose of expunging the superstitions and abuses that had crept both into the church and state. He held frequent disputations with many of the most eminent casuists of the established church, which, as he generally prevailed, gradually paved the way to the abolition of several

several ecclesiastical rites of modern date. Among these the invocation of saints, the worship of images, the celibacy of priests, and the occasional abstinence from meat, were some of the first that were abrogated by sovereign authority. Baptism was ordered to be administered in the vulgar tongue: permission was given to nuns to quit their convents and marry: some abbeys accepted of secularization: several priests entered into the state of matrimony; and Zwinglius himself soon after sanctioned the practice by his own example. Early in this year the celebration of mass was also abolished by authority of the senate: and Zuric gave evident symptoms of a speedy and complete separation from the mother church.'

The account of the premature fall of this great man occurs in the narrative of the battle of Cappel;

'Zwinglius was among the wounded. He had been stunned and thrown down by a shower of stones, and trampled upon by the fugitives and their pursuers: he recovered several times, but was too much exhausted to support himself. In his last effort he raised himself on his knees, and called out, "they may indeed kill the body, but they cannot destroy the soul:" and then, with clasped hands, and eyes uplifted to heaven, he once more fell backward. A catholic soldier observing his quivering lips, offered to bring him a confessor, to which he nodded dissent. A captain of Underwalden, who came by at the moment, fired with holy indignation against the obdurate heretic, pierced him through the neck. Thus fell Ulric Zwinglius; a man whom all parties allow to have possessed an heroic spirit, a greater degree of moderation than fell to the share of most of the other reformers, uncommon sagacity, combined with profound and extensive learning, and refined taste: he was ever averse to compulsive measures, but at all times willing to hazard his life in support of his firm persuasion. His manners were affable and conciliatory; he was a friend to cheerfulness and innocent mirth; and though indulgent to others, yet severely rigid towards himself. The conquerors exulted in his fall: they caused his body to be quartered by the hangman of Lucern, and to be burnt; and lest his ashes should become an object of veneration to his followers, they mixed pieces of hog's flesh with his mangled limbs. With him fell also fifteen other learned divines, whom their sense of duty had brought into the field.'

It is remarkable that the protestants, who in other countries, during this period, were not less brave in the field than skilful and spirited in controversy, exhibited in the Helvetic Cantons a want of union, and a pusillanimity, which checked the progress of the reformation; and which probably would have led to its total extinction in these regions, had not the inroads of the Turk, at a critical moment, called to another quarter the attention of Charles V.

'In the Pays de Vaud, various contests arose concerning matters of religion, which could not be terminated without compulsive expedients. William Farel, a native of Gap in Dauphiné, who had early embraced

embraced the doctrines of Zwinglius, came, with the consent of the government of Berne, to preach the gospel in these parts. At Orbe, he met with vehement resistance, chiefly from the women, who, being fascinated by the personal comeliness and insinuating manners of Juliani, a young Franciscan friar, thought his doctrines infallible, and were near inflicting on the reformer the treatment Orpheus is fabled to have experienced from the Bacchæ.'—' There are documents however extant, which prove that even fratricide is to be numbered among the crimes that were committed at Orbe in consequence of the religious animosities which at this time agitated the inhabitants.'

At Geneva, at this time, hierarchical zeal set all moral considerations at defiance. The canons of that city, we are told, resolved to destroy the principal reformers, Farel, Viret, and Froment.

' They called in for this purpose a woman who had already poisoned a young Genevan at Lyons, and who, under pretence of being a convert, was introduced as cook into the house where Farel and his friends lodged and boarded. On the day when she had mixed poison in the victuals, Farel and Froment fortunately dined from home; but Viret partook of the noxious viand, and perished. The woman confessed her guilt, named one of the canons as her accomplice, and suffered the punishment due to so heinous a crime.'

In Chap. VII. which brings down the affairs of Helvetia to the present century, we learn that, after the agitations of the reformation had subsided, the following became the religious state of the Cantons;

' Four of the cantons, and among these the two principal of them, had adopted the Reformation; seven remained firmly addicted to the faith of their ancestors; and two admitted both religions into their country as well as their senates. Of the three-and-twenty subject districts, only Morat and Granson became wholly protestant; sixteen retained their former creed, and five became mixed. Among the allies, Geneva, Neuchattel, Bienne, Mulhausen, and the town of St. Gallen, renounced the doctrines of Rome; while the diminutive republic of Gersau, and the abbey of Engelberg, persisted in their former worship. In the Grison leagues, after great disturbances, and many fluctuations, both creeds were at length admitted by public authority. The Reformation had at one time made considerable progress in the Valais, the Valteline, and the Italian bailiwicks: but popery at last prevailed; and at Locarno, those who refused to adhere to the established doctrines were compelled to quit the country; on which occasion no less than sixty families, among whom were several of considerable note, withdrew to Zuric, and contributed essentially to promote both the commerce and manufactures of that already prosperous city. This religious separation was by no means, in all cases, topographical; the inhabitants of different persuasions in many places living promiscuously together, and many large families having divided into branches, whose contradictory belief and stern fanaticism

fanaticism have frequently proved the source of destructive feuds and great calamities.'

Cardinal Boromeo, a Saint of the Roman Calendar, was Archbishop of Milan at this time, and thought that he could not better signalize his zeal, than by attempting every thing in his power to overthrow the reformation in the Cantons. For this purpose, he induced the papal court to have a Nuncio resident at Lucerne; he set up a seminary at Milan, to educate Swiss youth, to be employed as missionaries in their native country; and he neglected no opportunity of fomenting differences between the catholic and protestant districts; by which, though he failed in his object, he became the author of great calamities to the confederacy.

With the two parties in such temper as they then were, the establishment of the Gregorian calendar was cause sufficient to kindle animosities, and to occasion serious troubles.

'One of the principal reasons assigned by the peasants of Glaris, both protestants and catholics, for not adopting the new style, will, no doubt, appear sufficiently ludicrous. At the upper extremity of the principal valley, on the frontiers of the Grison country, is a natural aperture in a rock, called St. Martin's Hole, through which, annually, on the third of March and the third of September, old style, the sun at noon shines on the church steeple of the village of Elms. The peasants, when the new calendar was offered them, rejected it unanimously and with indignation; observing that, should they admit it, the sun would no longer dart its rays on that steeple on those periodical days.'

The affair of the Valteline, next mentioned in this chapter, was an event in the history of Europe on which much depended. It is not to be thoroughly understood without an intimate acquaintance with the state of the court of France during that period; many of the proceedings in which are only to be comprehended by connecting them with the bigotry of the Queen Mother, with the weak counsels which prevailed in the early part of the reign of Lewis XIII. and with the employment furnished to the great statesman Richelieu, by hostile courtiers, and the ever restless pr. estants.

In the succeeding pages, we have an account of the horrible massacre of the Valteline; from which it appears that the disciples of modern French philosophy have not greatly surpassed in excesses the disciples of a better cause, and that some ingenious and eloquent preachers are to be considered as advocates *ex parte.*

Speaking of the peace of Westphalia, the author ascribes to the Helvetic States an active interference, in order to obtain an acknowlegement of their independance. Other historians say

that these States did not move in the business, till they were excited by the Swedes and French, who insisted that the empire should make that concession.

On the occasion of Lewis XIV. seizing Franche Compté, the *Helvetic Defensional*, or the military code for the defence of the country, was devised and settled; and about the same time the *Formula Consensus*, or the Helvetic Protestant Confession of Faith, was established.

Lord Clarendon says, that a mandate of Cromwell put an end to the persecution of the protestants in Piedmont: but Mr. Planta reduces this splendid interference to the common act of sending money to the sufferers. If the noble historian mis-stated the fact, which, to favour Cromwell, he was not likely to do, the error should have been proved; if he was founded in what he asserted, the present author (we are sure, without intending it,) has been unjust not only to the memory of Cromwell, but to the honor of the English name.

Chap. VIII. gives a statistic view of the singular country to which this work relates. The author divides its governments into three classes; the Aristocratic, the Aristo-democratic, and the Democratic. In the first class, that of Berne stands foremost:

'This supreme legislative, as well as executive and judicial body, consisted, as its title denoted, of *the avoyer, the little and the great council.* The latter of these councils, which in fact comprised the two other branches of the legislature, being properly the depositary of the supreme authority, was also named *the sovereign council*, and (though of late its number has always been greater) *the council of two hundred.* Its full complement was, after various changes, fixed at two hundred and ninety-nine; which number however it seldom retained for any length of time, it having been of late a constant practice, in order to obviate the cabals which ever attend a competition to few vacancies, and perhaps, as Stanyan intimates, to reduce the number of candidates to the bailiwicks, who were always members of the council, not to proceed to an election until the vacancies amounted to at least eighty, which, according to the usual rate of mortality, happened in general every ten or eleven years. This council, of which the avoyers, the senators, and all the officers of state, were members, was authorized to make and repeal laws, to declare war, conclude peace, and form alliances, to judge in all capital cases within the district of the city, to determine all civil causes that came before it by appeal, and to delegate powers to inferior magistrates, courts, and civil departments. It ultimately regulated all that concerned the revenue; superintended whatever related to the public edifices, when the value exceeded the sum of one hundred crowns; and finally determined all matters that were referred to its decision by the senate. It usually met twice a week, but on urgent occasions more frequently.

'The senate, which, as it met every day, Sundays and festivals excepted, was likewise called the *daily council*, consisted of the two avoyers,

avoyers, the two treasurers, the four bannerets, seventeen ordinary and two secret senators. These seven-and-twenty members discussed and prepared all matters that were to be laid before the great council, dispatched all current affairs that related to the police, and conferred all church preferments, and many civil offices; they ordered gratuities within the limits of one hundred crowns; and ultimately decided all criminal causes, except those which were reserved for the great council, or some privileged municipality or vassal. But the greatest consequence they possessed, was derived from the great share they had in filling up the vacancies in the great council; and the power vested in them of convoking this council, whenever an incident occurred, which appeared to them to call for so vigorous a measure. Whenever the great council sat, this senate became incorporated in it, and retained no peculiar authority of its own. At other times it was not improperly considered as the executive power of the state.

'The two avoyers were the highest officers in the state. They were elected by public votes, in the sovereign council, for life; but were liable to be removed by the same body. One of them only supported the dignity, and exercised the functions, of head of the republic; and they alternately exchanged their stations every year, on Easter-Monday. The avoyer in office presided both in the council and senate, in each of which he had no regular, but only a casting vote: the great seal of the republic was in his custody; and a provincial jurisdiction was annexed to his station. In his absence the ex-avoyer supplied his place, and when he also was prevented from attending, he was authorized to appoint a substitute, who however could not be either a treasurer or a banneret. During the harvest and vintage, which were considered as vacations, one of the bannerets presided in the less frequent meetings that were held both of the senate and council, and had the custody of the great seal.'

The following was the mode of filling up a vacancy in the Senate:

'The proceedings, on a vacancy in the senate, were as follows. On the day, or morrow, of the interment of a deceased senator, the senate and council met, and as many balls as there were members present being put into two covered boxes, the senators drew them out of one, and the counsellors out of the other: among the former were three gilt balls, and among the latter seven, the remainder being silvered over; and those who drew the ten golden balls were electors for the nomination of candidates. These three senators and seven counsellors now withdrew behind a curtain, where they found printed lists of all the members of the council who were eligible into the senate: from one of these, each of them tore the name of the counsellor whom he meant to favour, and cancelled or secreted the remainder of the list. These names were next collected; and if they happened to be fewer than six, a fresh choice of ten electors was made, who proceeded in the same manner, until the number of ten candidates was completed. These candidates, with their nearest of kin, immediately withdrew; their names were affixed each to a box; and a second choice, by lot, was made of electors, the number of golden balls being, in this instance, two thirds of the members present,

sent. Each of those who drew a golden ball, dropped it into the box of the candidate to whom he gave his suffrage; and on examining this ballot, the six who had the fewest votes, and were hence excluded, were, together with their relations, called back into the assembly. Four balls, two silver and two golden ones, were next put into a box; and the four remaining candidates, they having previously determined the precedency by lot, drew them: the two who drew golden balls were lastly put to the ballot of the whole assembly; and he who now obtained the majority of votes, was declared duly elected.

'The reason of this repeated alternation by lot and ballot, cannot but be obvious to those who will bestow some thought upon the subject. Its greatest excellence perhaps consisted in making the chance of lots apply chiefly to the electors, and not to those who might pretend to the succession; by which means the dangerous effects of cabal were in a great measure obviated; and yet a fair prospect of success was given to the meritorious, while those wholly unqualified could entertain little hope of being preferred.'

The elections of the members of the Council were thus conducted:

'The seizeniers, who were entrusted with a considerable share in the election of counsellors, were chosen out of the twelve tribes or abbeys, by the members of those bodies who, being counsellors, had served the office of bailiff. Their functions being of a nature that required no uncommon talents, their nomination was left solely to the decision of chance.'—

'Whenever the great council determined upon completing their number, the senate and the seizeniers were assembled for the purpose, and proceeded to the nomination. Here each of the avoyers had the right to propose two candidates, and every other member one. The chancellor, the greffier or secretary of state, the grand sautier or lieutenant of the police, and the usher or keeper of the town-house, claimed also the privilege of naming each a candidate; and it seldom happened that any of these nominees were rejected. The electors, it may well be imagined, in exercising this privilege, gave the preference to their sons, sons-in-law, brethren, or other near relations, which necessarily secured the seats in the council to a small number of families. Stanyan ridicules, with some humour, the amorous visits that were usually paid to the daughters of the newly created seizeniers, the instant they were raised to that station, previous to an election into the great council *; while others assert, in extenuation of the practice, that the senatorial families, by the education and early experience they afforded to their youths, were likely to fit them preferably to others for the complicated duties of a public station: they further allege that instances of exclusion have not been wanting when the candidates proposed were notoriously unqualified, or unworthy of so eminent a station. About fifty of the vacancies having

'* A seat in the council was deemed equivalent to a marriage portion of fifteen hundred pounds sterling.'

been

been thus filled, the remainder was provided for by an open election. Each of the abbeys was required to send in the names of those burghers who, being duly qualified, were moreover deemed worthy of the promotion. These names were drawn by lot, and successively proclaimed; and each elector signified his approbation of a candidate by rising from his seat when the name was mentioned. An accurate account was kept of those who had thus publicly voted for each burgher; and the whole being summed up, as many as were equal to the number of vacancies, having the majority of votes, were declared members of the great council. Although, in general, the counsellors were chosen out of not more than about seventy families, yet there seldom was an election in which some burghers of new families were not admitted to that dignity, and some of late were usually preferred out of families of the Pays de Vaud.'

The page of history does not exhibit a greater curiosity than the *state exterior* at Berne:

'A singular, and at first sight no doubt a rather ludicrous establishment, of which no instance is to be met with in any other government, was the mimic legislature, which, under the name of the *exterior state*, was a perfect model of the real one, with all its officers, functions, ceremonies, and subordinate departments. It consisted of those burghers of distinguished families, who had not yet attained the age requisite for real promotion: it appointed to sixty-six bailiwicks, which took their names from ruined castles, dispersed throughout the country, among which Hapsburg was the principal: it had an exchequer, and differing in this from its archetype, some debts. Great honours were paid to it in all public ceremonies, in which it greatly surpassed the sovereign council in stateliness and splendour. These distinctions it doubtless owed to the consideration of its being, in fact, a political seminary for the youths, who were likely one day to arrive at the highest offices in the state. Its avoyer seldom failed of promotion into the great council. Its badge, or coat of arms, an ape sitting on a lobster, and viewing itself in a mirror, was no bad emblem of its mock consequence.'

Mr. Planta gives the following sketch of the constitution of the State of Uri; between which and those of the other democratic Cantons, there was scarcely any difference:

'The people met on stated days, generally once a year, in an open field, about four thousand in number. At these assemblies, which were called the communities of the country, each male, of the age of sixteen, had his suffrage. They were opened by solemn prayers, and oaths of fidelity and allegiance. The people next proceeded either to confirm the old, or to elect new magistrates, consisting of the landamman, who was generally continued a second year in office, the stadholder, the treasurer, and the secretary. They elected deputies to the general diets, or for foreign missions; named the bailiffs in their turns, most of the cantons having subject provinces in common with others; and deliberated on all matters of more than usual importance. For the dispatch of the ordinary busi-

ness, a council of regency was named; each community, of which there were ten, electing six counsellors. The landamman, who presided at this board, had the right of calling in additional members whenever he saw occasion. Each community, each parish, each village, had its own independent jurisdiction; it conducted its own pecuniary concerns, its revenue from lands, woods, and alps; and chose its secular clergy. These primary communities met at least once a month.'

We must not overlook the author's account of the Grison Leagues;

'Among the allied states, the government of the Grison country deserves some particular notice; as it will be vain to seek in history, or in the politics of our own times, a form so purely democratic in its theory, and yet so remote from it in the application. The three leagues were divided into twenty-six higher jurisdictions, and subdivided into fifty-nine communities, many of them consisting of a single village, each of which being a distinct, though very diminutive republic, had its peculiar and independent constitution, chose its own civil magistrates, consisting in general of an amman, podesta or ministral, and twelve jurats, its pastors, and deputies to the general diet. All these it had the power to cashier, and in case of delinquency, to punish, without admitting the least interference of the collective body, unless by way of intercession. In these elections, and in all public deliberations, every male of a stated age had his vote.

'The link of union among these petty states was the general diet to which each community sent one, and four of the larger ones two deputies. These, together with the chiefs of each league, formed a body of sixty-six members, who met in rotation at Coire, Davos, and Ilanz, about the beginning of September, and continued sitting about three weeks or a month. It is to be observed, that these deputies were not authorized to decide on any question, but that they were bound in every instance to send to their constituents a statement of the matter in agitation, and to demand special instructions, to which they were bound to adhere. Each community might however at all times wave this privilege, by investing its deputy with a general power to act according to his own discretion: and as by far the majority of the electors were persons wholly unqualified to judge upon complicated matters of government, it may well be imagined that every society of this nature would frequently be biassed by a few of its members, superior to the rest either in mental qualifications, or the still more prevalent influence of property. Hence many of these unlimited powers were obtained; and even when they were withheld, it was generally in the power of the leaders, by some ambiguity or peculiarity in the statement laid before the communities, to obtain the decision that best suited their purposes. There was no established board or council, which could be considered as an executive body.

'This will suffice to point out to the reader, the principal source of the undue influence which at once defaced the most prominent features of this popular constitution. An influence which men will in

in vain endeavour to counteract; and which, when the interests or passions of the leaders happen to be at variance, will ever open the door to factions and civil commotions, the horrors of which that country has abundantly experienced. Mr. Coxe's judicious observations on the incompetency of annual elections by the people at large, towards securing the freedom of a state, are well worth the serious consideration of every Englishman, who has the prosperity of his country truly at heart.'

Mr. Planta next treats of the federal constitution of Helvetia;

'Having thus taken a cursory view of the several component parts, the aggregate of which formed the Helvetic confederacy; we may now proceed to contemplate the bond of union, to which they chiefly owed the rank they have long held among the powers of Europe; but which, as has been observed by a writer of much authority, was improperly called an union, since, except in what concerned the common sovereignties, there were but few points in which they necessarily came in contact with each other. Its true denomination appears to have been that of a permanent defensive alliance, the object of which was the protection of each member against all foreign attacks, and the preservation of interior tranquillity, by the weighty preponderancy of a majority operating against those who betrayed a disposition to create disturbances. It was by no means a representative government: it had no common administration, no concentrated authority, no executive power, no public treasury, no mint: nor could it, even in its relations with foreign powers, be considered as an individual state, since most of the alliances were made not with the collective body at large, but with one or more of the members separately, several of them having expressly reserved the power of forming such connections.

'The diets, which thus appear to have been held more for the purpose of communication, than either of legislation, or any other functions of government, were either general or special, ordinary or extraordinary. The general ordinary diets consisted of the deputies of all the cantons, and of those of the allies who were distinguished by the appellation of associates.'

Previously to the present awful struggle, Europe was often not unaptly represented as one great federal republic. The benevolent persons, who delighted to view it in this light, and who exercised their ingenuity in devising plans for arbitrating the differences of nations by other modes than those of arms, might have found something like a model in the practice of the Helvetic confederacy; of which an account is given in the following passage:

'The law of arbitration, of which frequent mention has been made, was the result of most of the compacts that had been entered into by these states; and gave rise to many secondary meetings, which were summoned for the purpose of adjusting disputes occasionally arising between different members of the confederacy. Whenever these occurred, each canton at variance sent two deputies to the

place agreed upon in their treaties, and these, when their opinions were equally divided, chose a sur-arbitrator from one of the neutral cantons. This umpire was for the time absolved from his oath of allegiance to his own sovereign, that none of his engagements might clash with the impartiality of his award. He was not allowed to propose a new opinion, but could only confirm one of those previously delivered by the deputies: but his decision was final. All the cantons were not equally bound to submit their differences to the law of arbitration, the old ones having reserved the power of declining it, while those that entered late in the confederacy were bound to adhere to it whenever it was proposed to them.'

The author thus concludes this most valuable chapter;

'The well-informed writer of the preliminary discourse to the Dictionnaire de la Suisse, states, that the number of Swiss, whom Lewis the Fourteenth retained in his service, amounted to twenty-eight thousand; but that of late the regiments in France did not contain more than fifteen thousand five hundred men. Taking therefore an average of one thousand three hundred men per regiment, the Swiss troops in foreign services formed an army of near forty thousand men. Besides these, the French king, the king of Sardinia, and the Pope, had each a body of guards, to which they particularly committed the safety of their persons, known by the name of the *Cent Suisses:* and at this time, there probably is scarce an army in Europe, where numbers of Swiss adventurers, urged by their love of arms, are not enrolled.'

Chap IX. gives the modern history of Geneva, with all the interest and fidelity which belong to this author. Fatio, though little known to history, appears to have been a very striking character; and from the account here given, he seems only to have wanted a wider theatre, to have descended to future ages as the most intrepid of patriot martyrs. The annals of Nero or Domitian present nothing more foul, than the mockery of justice carried on by a republican magistracy, in consequence of which this brave man suffered death.

The subject of Chap. X., and last, is the late overthrow of the Helvetic Confederacy by the French. This transaction is too recent for history. The feelings of the moment will not allow the writer to assign to each cause its due share of influence, nor to view each event in its true light. Indignation on the one hand, and commiseration on the other, are too busy in the bosom, to suffer history to assume her calm and dispassionate character; and it is impossible to prevent the pen from running into endless invective on one side, and pathetic declamation on the other. Instead of arraigning the present writer for his want of impartiality, we wonder that he has not failed more in that quality. Indeed, had the strain and temper which characterize the other parts of the work pervaded this chapter, we should

should have applauded the fairness of the historian, but we own that the man and the Swiss would have suffered in our estimation. We can discover that the accounts, given in this last chapter, greatly differ from those which would have come from the same pen, employed on the same materials, at a period of some distance from that in which the events recorded took place.

In asserting what is due to history, we wish to allow full play to feelings founded in patriotism, in humanity, and in a sense of right. Many defects, we are persuaded, will be discoverable hereafter in this part of the work; and we could point out several: but we have no relish for the task; and a more fit season will arrive.—Let us not be mistaken; we should act most unjustly, if we did not allow to the narrative, in the present chapter, very eminent claims to merit. As a work of the day, it is intitled to the highest commendations; and we impute to it no defects but such as were inevitable. It was impossible to assimilate it with the other materials which compose these valuable and authentic volumes; and all that could be done, towards giving it this perfection, has been effected.

We must now dismiss this work; offering our sincere congratulations to the author, on the service which he has rendered to letters,—on the obligations under which he has laid his native and adopted countries,—and on the memorial of his industry, general information, sound judgment, and impartiality, which he has thus erected, and which will so honourably transmit his name to future times.

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Art. XIV. *Some Account of the Cathedral Church of Exeter*, illustrative of the Plans, Elevations, and Sections of that Building. Imperial Folio. 4l. 4s. in Sheets. White, Bickerstaff, &c.

It is with pleasure that we make our readers acquainted with the prosecution of a most magnificent design, formed by the Society of Antiquaries, of presenting to the public, in a style of singular elegance, accurate measures, plans, elevations, and sections of the principal ecclesiastical buildings of England. The work which commenced the execution of this plan was announced in our 20th Vol, N.S. p. 130. To the projectors and superintendants of the undertaking, much praise is due; and we sincerely hope that the most favourable auspices will accompany them to its conclusion. To say nothing of the necessity of a scientific investigation of the different styles of building, which commonly pass under the general term of *Gothic*, the wretched state of many of our sacred edifices must excite the lamentation of taste; and seemed to call on the Society of Antiquaries, to take some effectual measures for transmitting to posterity a know-

lege of the beauty and proportions of this style of architecture The humid and corrosive quality of the atmosphere, assisted by neglect, is continually obliterating the specimens of antient art with which our pious forefathers embellished the country. Some have perished; others are seen "nodding to their fall;" and even where no gross acts of folly or omission can be charged on clergymen or their parishioners, the tooth of time has committed cruel depredations; especially on the exterior members and ornaments of buildings in the light Gothic or Saracenic style. The outside of Henry VIIth's Chapel is a melancholy proof how rapidly the most beautiful enrichments disappear, when exposed to the full action of our varying climate; and we would here take occasion to observe that architects should learn, from this circumstance, the folly of lavishing minute sculpture on the exterior of buildings which are intended to descend to posterity.

We mean not, however, to attribute the mutilated state of many of our antient edifices merely to the rough treatment which they have received from a British atmosphere. By the changes and revolutions, political and ecclesiastical, which this country has experienced in a course of ages, our sacred structures have very severely suffered; and they bear the marks of robbery and violence to the present day. The first work of this splendid series of publications, "An Account of the Collegiate Chapel of St. Stephen, Westminster," exhibited the conversion of a religious building to a political use; with the depredations and concealment which some of the most beautiful specimens of gothic art have suffered from that circumstance. The present lobby of the House of Commons once contained enrichments, of which no traces remain; and the parts which have furnished materials for other portions of the drawings are behind the pannelling which has so often vibrated with the sound of political contention, and the recent removal of which has led to farther discoveries.

The building of which an account, sections, and drawings, are here exhibited, in this second number of the series, maintains its appropriation to a religious use; and though it has suffered in the lapse of ages, it has been preserved in as perfect a state as any person could expect to find it. The engravings, like those of St. Stephen's Chapel, are made from measured drawings taken by order of the Society of Antiquaries by Mr. Carter; and they are accompanied by his account of such things as appeared to him worthy of remark, in the course of his survey.

Farther to gratify the antiquary and the public, by the most complete information to be collected on the subject, the society have prefixed to Mr. Carter's account, a tract by Bishop Litte-

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ton, drawn from the rolls of the cathedral while he was Dean of Exeter; which is followed by some ingenious and sensible observations by Sir Henry Englefield.

Curious and replete with information as the Bishop's tract unquestionably is, and however it may be adduced in proof of his patience and industry as an antiquary, it by no means establishes the point for which its author so strenuously contends; and which was to deprive Bishop Quivil of the honour of being the founder of the present elegant building. As it is unnecessary for us to make many comments on it, we shall chiefly confine ourselves to Sir Harry's observations. He remarks that

'Some inaccuracies in the accounts of Leland, Hooker, and Godwin, have occasioned the doubts of the Bishop on the subject; and if the words of those authors are to be taken in a literal sense, it is certain that the accounts they give of the building are inconsistent with the internal evidence of the structure; but it must be remembered, that when they writ, the critical knowlege of the ancient architecture of this kingdom, in the middle and lower ages, did not exist; and it was therefore natural for them to apply to the whole, what was true only of parts, although the information they gathered, either from records now destroyed, or tradition at present obsolete, was in itself accurate.

'These allowances being made, it seems no very difficult matter to reconcile the account of Godwin in his work de Præsulibus Angliæ, with the information drawn by Bishop Littleton from the records yet remaining in the cathedral, and that which is to be gained from an examination of the building in its present state. Bishop Littleton seems to have thought that when the episcopal see was, by Edward the Confessor, about the year 1049, removed from Crediton to Exeter, a church worthy of the see was either found there, or erected by that monarch. This does not seem to have been the case. The new chapter took possession of a convent of monks, which does not appear to have been large, as two other adjacent monasteries were taken as additional lodgings for the clergy of the cathedral. The church therefore, it is probable, was proportionally small; and this is more likely, as the convent had been totally destroyed by fire only thirty years before, and a very extensive edifice could not easily have been built and completed in that period. It seems then not unlikely, that the first cathedral was not more than about sixty-feet in length, and occupied *the site of* the present chapel of St. Mary. That the chapel *in its present state*, was the Saxon church, scarce needed disproving.'

Other observations are offered by the learned Baronet, to resist the arguments and inferenees of Bishop Littleton. The towers, indeed, he ascribes to William Warlewast, who succeeded to the see in the year 1107; they being similar in style to the buildings of Gundulph his contemporary, who erected Rochester castle: but he bestows on Peter Quivil, who was presented to the see in 1280, or in the reign of Edward I., the

honour of giving to the church its present grandeur and uniformity.

'Whatever, (says Sir Henry,) was the state of the church at the accession of Bishop Quivil, the uniformity of the structure, as it at present stands, seems to prove beyond a doubt that the whole, as the uniform tradition of the different writers has delivered down to us, was the fruit of one great design; and its singular elegance does as much honour to the taste, as its noble size to the munificence of the founder. Godwin's assertion, that Quivil founded the transept, which Littleton so severely censures, is undoubtedly true; for he joined the two towers by arches on each side of the nave, and cut away the interior walls of each tower, turning great arches in them, as appears by the roll quoted by Littleton; besides which it appears, from the same roll, that he broke out the two great windows which light the transept, in the opposite walls of the towers: he therefore formed the transept, though he did not build all the walls from the ground. A building of the dimensions of this cathedral could scarcely be erected in the life of one bishop; we accordingly find, that during the time of Quivil's successor, Bytton, great sums were in different years expended on the work; and the choir does not appear to have been finished till the year 1318, in the episcopate of Stapledon, when 86l. were expended on the altar-piece. It is probable, that when Quivil thus undertook to rebuild the church, he would, as long as possible, preserve the old choir for the celebration of divine service; and when the new nave was completed, form that into a temporary church while the choir was rebuilding. Hence it appears, that the choir and altar were among the last works of the new church.'

It is also remarked that a singular felicity attended the erection of this beautiful cathedral, since,

'During the long period of fifty years no tasteless or vain prelate interfered with the regular and elegant plan of the founder. Though the taste in architecture was continually changing, so scrupulous was the adherence to the original design, that the church seems rather to have been created at once in its perfect state, than have slowly grown to its consummate beauty. Even Grandison, (he succeeded to the see in 1327,) who, if we may judge from his screen, at the western entrance, had a florid taste in the extreme in architecture, chastized his ideas within the church, and felt the simple grace of Quivil's design.'

To Sir H. Englefield's observations is annexed, 'A Chronological table of the succession of the bishops of Exeter, and the dates of different circumstances relative to the building of the cathedral and its dependencies, extracted from Godwin and Bishop Littleton's Tract.'

With the view of correcting an opinion which has generally prevailed, we shall advert to one passage in the tract of Bishop L. The thin fine pillars, which fill up the angles of, or make clusters round the larger columns in this and most of

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our cathedrals and collegiate churches, have been commonly supposed to be an artificial composition: but it appears that this is not the case, and that they are a kind of marble which was brought from Corfe in the isle of Purbeck, dug out of quarries which have been long since exhausted. Bishop Littleton, to put this point out of all dispute, gives an extract from the fabric rolls of 1331 and 1332, containing an estimate delivered to the Dean and Chapter by William Canon, of Corfe, for the supply of this marble for that purpose.

The plates in the present volume are eleven in number, with each of which is given an explanation by Mr. Carter. The first, making an engraved title-page, exhibits an elegant design of a mural monument erected to the memory of a person no longer remembered; and whose name even is not known. Plate 2. is an accurate plan of the cathedral church of Exeter, and the site of the adjoining buildings. 3. The elevation of the west front of the cathedral. 4. The elevation of the north side. 5. Section from east to west. 6. Section from north to south. 7. The grand screen or façade at the west front, an object which must strike the eye on account of the richness of its architectural ornaments, and the number of statues. It surpasses every thing of the kind in the kingdom. 8. The external elevation of the north porch, and the internal elevation of a part of the north-side of the chapter-house. 9. A part of the north side of the nave of the cathedral. 10. Views of the clock given by Bishop Courtney, who succeeded to the see 1478; of the three stalls at the high altar; and of the bishop's throne. Mr. Carter mentions the clock as 'worthy of notice both for the elegance of its ornaments and its mechanism, which is uncommon at so early a period. The Earth is in the centre, Round it the moon revolves in a month, and changes her aspect according to her age, which is marked on the interior divided circle. Beyond her another ball represents the sun, and points to the twenty-four hours. The circle of hours is numbered from one to twelve twice over. The inscription, *pereunt et imputantur*, is modern.' Plate 11 contains ornaments from different parts of the cathedral.

Mr. Carter concludes his account of the plates, by complimenting the reverend guardians of this sacred edifice on their strict attention to its preservation; and on their taste in adhering to the original design whenever any repair has been made.

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ART. XV. *Some Account of the Abbey Church at Bath*, illustrative of the Plans, Elevations, and Sections of that Building. Imperial Folio. 2l. 12s. 6d. in Sheets. White, &c. 1799.

THIS is the third publication by the Society of Antiquaries, in continuation of their splendid undertaking mentioned in the preceding article. A short introduction explains the principle on which it has hitherto been conducted.

'As in a plan so extended as the present, it is difficult to lay down any order of publication not liable to some objections, the committee, on whom the council have conferred the honour of conducting this undertaking, have been of opinion, that it would be more satisfactory to select such churches, for their first specimens, as gave examples of the different styles of building in different ages, and of which, at the same time, no good account was extant, than to follow any topographical or chronological arrangement; either of which would not be of any real advantage, but would compel them to publish in their order, several buildings but little interesting in themselves, and others, of which tolerably good surveys were already extant. The chapel of St. Stephen in Westminster, was therefore first selected, as a specimen of the most ornamented style of architecture in the time of Edward the Third, when the art seems in its highest state of perfection; and being in the metropolis, it afforded an easy opportunity to those who were inclined so to do, of comparing the prints with the building, and judging of the degree of accuracy with which they were executed. The cathedral of Exeter was next chosen, both as being of uncommon elegance in a plainer style, about the same period, and as being wholly unpublished, with the exception only of the great west window.

'The abbey church of Bath is now selected for publication, as being the last building of any magnitude erected in this country, in a style purely Gothic, and almost the only one which remains exactly in the state in which it was originally designed.'

The reasons adduced for the order of publication, which has been pursued, may not be quite satisfactory to all readers. They may object to the propriety of commencing the work with specimens of the Gothic style 'in its highest state of perfection.' They may wish that the committee had followed the chronology of the Gothic architecture, and made their publications a sort of history of its rise, perfection, and decline; commencing with some pure specimens of the Saxon architecture, which preceded the Gothic, and with which it is blended in several of our cathedrals; and terminating with that corrupt and vicious style, which consists of an absurd mixture of Gothic and Greek architecture. Till the society have completed their plan, we shall not decide on the reasoning of the committee. It will be easy, when the series is concluded, to arrange the publications according to the chronology of the buildings

buildings which they describe; and to offer some general observations, illustrative of the different æras or periods of that architecture which passes under the common denomination of Gothic.

Though the account of the abbey church of Bath, prefixed to this work, contains nothing absolutely new, and boasts not of being extracted from sources which have remained hitherto unexplored, we may yet be expected to give some abstracts from it.

Notice is taken of the religious establishments at Bath as far back as the year 676: but it is unnecessary for us to advert to an higher antiquity than the year 1495, (the tenth year of Henry VII.,) when Oliver King was translated from the see of Exeter to that of Bath, and formed the design and commenced the erection of the present structure.

'In consequence of a vision * which he beheld, he resolved to rebuild the church of St. Peter in a most correct manner, and with a magnificence becoming the greatest prince; but he did not live to see the work perfected, though he pursued it with all the activity in his power, and declared his disregard of any extraordinary expence so that he could see it finished: he died before the south and west parts of the building were covered in; and before even all the walls were raised to their proper heights. The priors of Bath carried on the work of the church after the bishop's death, in 1502: they, in about thirty years, completed it, though not in that elegant manner intended by the founder. Prior Bird, who first engaged in the work, expended on it so much money as to impoverish him, and he died very poor: his successor, Prior Gibbs, alias Holeway, spent likewise a great sum in perfecting the fabric, which was scarcely finished before he, with John Pitt, Sub-prior, Thomas Bathe, Canon, and fourteen others, subscribed to the (king's) supremacy on the 22d of September 1534 (the 25th of Henry VIII.); and on the 27th of January 1539, Prior Holeway divested himself of the whole monastery, by surrendering it to the crown. After this, the king's commissioners made an offer of it to the city of Bath for 500 marks, which they refused, whereupon certain merchants bought all the glass, iron, and lead of the fabric, and so left nothing but the skeleton remaining.'

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* "This bishop (we are told by Sir John Harington) having been at Bath, imagined, as he one night lay meditating in bed, that he saw the Holy Trinity, with angels ascending and descending by a ladder, near to which there was a fair *olive* tree supporting a crown; the impression was so strong, that the bishop thought he heard a voice which said, let an *olive* establish the crown, and let a *king* restore the church. This had such an effect on the good prelate, that he instantly formed a design to rebuild the church of St. Peter's, set the work immediately in hand, and caused his vision to be represented on the outside of it, under the title of *De sursum est*; † it is from on high."

† This motto, Mr. Carter tells us, is now no where to be perceived.

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In this ruined state it continued for more than half a century; and the account farther adds:

'The west part of the nave was uncovered in 1609, when Dr. James Montague, Bishop of Bath and Wells (afterwards Bishop of Winchester), set the example of repairing this part, and was followed by divers noblemen and gentlemen; Sir Henry Montague, Knt. Lord Chief Justice of the King's Bench, brother to the munificent bishop, beautified the great west door; Sir Nicholas Salterus, Knt. of London, built the vestry. Thus, by the assistance of these benefactors, the church was restored to what we now behold it.'

It was also, we believe, then made parochial.

The plates, embellishing this work, are ten in number. The 1st, making an engraved title, is from a small armory in the church. The 2d is the ground plan. 3d, Elevation of the west front, given divested of the modern houses which have been suffered shamefully to crowd on and obscure the beauty of this religious edifice. 4th, Elevation of the north front, given also without the miserable habitations which disfigure it, and which the city of Bath should purchase and pull down. 5th, Section of the church from east to west. 6th, Elevation of the west front, drawn on the large scale, more distinctly to exhibit the sculpture and ornaments so profusely bestowed, and supposed to exhibit the particulars of Bishop Oliver King's vision. Of this plate a minute explanation is given. 7th, The internal order of the church, on a large scale. 8th, Various parts of the architecture and enrichments. 9th, Elevation of the south side of the monumental chapel of Prior Bird. 10th, Inside view of Prior Bird's monumental chapel; looking east.

The plates of this and the preceding publication are engraved by Basire.

Moo-y.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For AUGUST, 1800.

ORIENTAL LITERATURE.

Art. 16. *The Persian Diary;* or, Reflection's Oriental Gift of Daily Counsel. By William Robson, of Castle Cary. 12mo. 2s. Wallis. 1800.

THIS gift, price two shillings, which the generosity of the author has induced him to ascribe to the Persians, is much more likely to have been produced in a western island, than on an eastern continent. No Persian could have formed so ingenious an expedient, as that of suggesting a reflection for each day in the year; still less could he have imagined that 'the proportionate finger is equal to the arm,' which Mr. Robson assures us it is. 'The intention of this diary is to raise some proper consideration in the mind—to invite reflection

flection on the subject, (*i. e.* on the subject of proper consideration,) and to give an opportunity of expressing any remarks or observations that may occur.' For the latter purpose, nearly half of the book is left blank, and is by no means the least useful part.

Should Mr. Robson conceive that we have been severe in our strictures, we hope that he will recollect (see the 12th of June,) that 'unmerited praise is flattery—undeserved commendation mockery.' Could he discover the difference between unmerited praise and undeserved commendation, we should thank him for the information.—He recommends the following reflection for the 26th of February; 'Affection gives the mind sensibility, and forbearance firmness: independence is therefore inconsistent with the virtues.' This we must pronounce to be nonsense all the year round; though, if the author will consent to allot it for the 29th instead of the 26th of February, we will withdraw our objection.

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Art. 17. *The Story of Al Raoui*, a Tale, from the Arabic. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Geisweiler. 1799.

Of this small but very elegant book, 22 pages are occupied by the tale of Al Raoui, and the same number by a translation of it into German: if, indeed, the English translation be not rather rendered from this last, for of this circumstance the translator makes no mention. He thinks it probable that it is one from that portion of "the thousand and one nights" which is yet untranslated. If this be the case, it appears to us inferior to most of the collection.—The rest of the work comprises three short English poems, not distinguished by any uncommon powers of imagination or expression. The last of them arrested our attention by the singularity of some of the epithets. Within the compass of a few lines, we met with "lush grass," an "owl rewing her way," and "autumn sere" invading a copse.

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AGRICULTURE, &c.

Art. 18. *Observations on the Failure of Turnip Crops*, with Proposals for a Remedy, not altogether new, yet not fully considered by Agricultural Writers. By the Rev. H. P. Stacy, L.L.B. F.L.S. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1800.

Lack of moisture, and not the *fly*, is here stated to be the general cause of the failure of the turnip crop. Mr. S. therefore recommends that the turnip seed be put deeper into the ground than is commonly practised: but how the agriculturist is to proceed in doing this, is not accurately stated. There may be some utility in the hint here suggested, though it does not appear to proceed from the school of experience.

Mooy.

Art. 19. *Thoughts on the Corn Trade.* 8vo. 6d. Debrett. 1800.

The writer of this little pamphlet recommends the ascertainment of the quantity of bread-corn in the kingdom, immediately after harvest; the loan of money by Government to the farmers, to aid them in the cultivation of waste land; and an accurate registry of all the corn sold. A good harvest will probably make these thoughts less regarded than they would otherwise deserve to be.

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EDUCATION, &c.

Art. 20. *A brief Account of the Life and Writings of Terence.* For the Use of Schools. 8vo. 1s. White.

For delicacy of sentiment, elegant simplicity of language, and just delineations of human life and manners, the comedies of Terence have ever been considered as pre-eminent models. They have, therefore, been read with delight by every person who has any pretensions to taste and classical learning. Warburton, speaking of this excellent writer, says that he was the best moral painter that ever lived; and though this eulogium may be exaggerated, it must be confessed that the virtues of youth and age were never exhibited in colours so strong, beautiful, and just, as in the characters of Pamphilus in the Andrian, and Mitio in the Adelphi. If, as is now the received opinion among the critics, Terence was indebted to Menander for the substance of four of his plays, and to Apollodorus for the remaining two, we must deeply regret the loss of writings so excellent that, even when transmitted through the medium of an inferior language, and with the disadvantages inseparable from translation and imitation, they are contemplated with surprize and delight.

However this may be, every attempt to recommend such an author as Terence, to the attention of youth, is intitled to praise; and this is the object of the little compilation before us, which consists of the life of Terence, and some remarks on his writings.—In the biography, but few incidents occur; and the remarks, though in general just, contain nothing new, being chiefly selected from preceding writers. The style, however, is easy and unaffected; and the work will probably answer the design of the author, by conveying useful information to young gentlemen at schools, and enabling them justly to appreciate the merits of Terence, and to acquire some general notion of the Roman drama.

Barr.

Art. 21. *Scientific Dialogues*, intended for the Instruction and Entertainment of young People: in which the first Principles of Natural and Experimental Philosophy are fully explained. Vol. I. of Mechanics. Vol. II. of Astronomy. 12mo. 5s. Boards. Johnson. 1800.

In these small volumes, we perceive what may be done towards reducing *Science itself* to a level with the capacity even of children, at so early an age as that of 10 or 11 years;—'a period of life, which, from the author's own experience, he is confident, is by no means too early to induce in children habits of scientific reasoning.' The first of these volumes comprehends the general principles of philosophy, together with the structure and use of the mechanical powers; and the second volume contains a very intelligible and familiar account of the most interesting subjects of astronomy. The author, availing himself of the experience of several years in the department of education, has happily adapted the instruction which he communicates, to the understanding of very young persons; so that they will find little difficulty in forming just and satisfactory ideas of the several subjects to which he directs their attention.

To

To each of these volumes, the particular contents of which it is needless to detail, are annexed four plates, containing figures for the illustration of the most important articles that occur.

The plan of this work was suggested by the perusal of Edgeworth's "Practical Education,"* and particularly by the chapter on mechanics. We learn from the author's preface that, if the present attempt for the benefit of young persons be duly encouraged, he proposes to publish four other volumes of a similar kind, comprising optics, hydrostatics, pneumatics, chemistry, electricity, and magnetism.

Re.s.

Art. 22. *French Pronunciation and Reading made easy:* or, The Logographic-Emblematical French Spelling Book. Being a Method by which any Child, four or five Years old, and of ever so slow an Apprehension, although perfectly unacquainted with his Letters, will, in a few Months, be enabled to read French fluently, and pronounce it as if he were a Parisian born. To which are added, Instructions to enable any Person to put this Method in practice; as likewise Certificates and other Vouchers of the Efficacy of the same. Published by M. Lenoir, Author of the *Pratique de l'Orateur François, &c.* 8vo. 5s. sewed. Dulau and Co. 1799.

Art. 23. *The Logographic-Emblematical English Spelling Book*, or a Method of teaching Children to read. Being founded upon an entirely new Principle, by which any Infant, four or five Years old, and of ever so slow an Apprehension, will, with the greatest Ease to himself and Teachers, acquire in a few Months the utmost Steadiness and Fluency in reading, and be enabled to make his Way, at first Sight, through any Book that may be put in his Hands. To which are added, Instructions to enable any Person to put this Method in practice; as likewise four Copper-plates, exhibiting the Emblems upon which this System is founded. By M. Lenoir, &c. &c. 8vo. 7s. sewed. Mawman. 1800.

It is undoubtedly true that, by teaching the names of the letters in the alphabet to children, we advance them but a little way in the art of reading; since they have still to learn the many various sounds for which each individual letter stands as a sign, and to which its name bears no resemblance. It has lately become a question, whether a knowlege of the various sounds is best acquired by the common method, in which the acquisition is left to the gradual influence of habit and experience; or by any novel mode, by which the different sounds are separately taught as the elements of language, without any regard being paid to the alphabetical names. The author of the two publications before us ranks with those who entertain the latter opinion; and if his positive declarations of the efficacy of his system could be admitted as proofs of its merit, there would be an end to the question. Those persons, however, who have had no experience of the mode proposed, will require other testimonies than the sanguine expressions of its author. The present is not the first attempt of the kind which has been lately made. In a work on education by Miss Edgeworth, already noticed by us*, a plan was proposed, which was

* See Rev. vol. xxx, N. S. p. 72. and vol. xxxi. p. 46.

similar

similar in principle, though different in mode. In both, the object was to convey to the pupil a knowlege of the various sounds of the letters independently of their names; by Miss Edgeworth, this was effected by fixing different marks to each of the letters, and thus distinguishing the different sounds; in the present publications, the author proceeds by means of counters, having representations of sensible objects on one side, the names of which exemplify the sounds; and on the other side the corresponding sounds in letters. They who may be disposed to try this scheme will find a copious detail of the method of putting it into practice, though not so clear as we could have wished; and we fear that, unless Mr. Lenoir conveys a greater degree of perspicuity into his style, the press will form but a limited promoter of his system, how successful soever his personal and individual exertions may be in extending it. Experience is perhaps the only test of the excellence of these novel systems; and though we may be disposed to doubt the propriety of departing from the beaten tract, yet, as their professed object and boasted efficacy are to smooth and shorten the pains of education, we shall content ourselves with saying that, as such an object is worth attaining, perhaps the attempt to accomplish it is worth the trial. O.W.

Art. 24. *Cours de Lectures Graduées pour les Enfans de Six, Sept, et Huit Ans. Par M. l'Abbé Gaultier. Second Cours, en Six Volumes.* Pocket 4to. 14s. 6d. Bremner.

This is the second course of a series of lectures which the Abbé Gaultier has given for the instruction of early youth in the French language. The first course *, in three volumes, was calculated for children of three, four, and five years of age:—of this second, which is in six volumes, the first two are designed for children of six years:—the next two for those of seven, and the fifth and sixth for those of eight years. These different volumes contain dialogues exemplifying the *ten* several parts of speech; which are followed respectively by other dialogues illustrating their nature, and explaining and applying to them the rules of grammar. The former are useful not only in illustrating the grammatical construction of each particular species of words, the *professed* purpose for which they are written,—but still more so by furnishing a valuable stock of French reading, peculiarly fitted for children of an early age; at once infusing into the youthful mind, morality, sentiment, and taste, together with the knowlege of a fashionable language. The dialogues, which specifically treat of the grammar of the language, have also considerable merit; inasmuch as they treat a very dry, and, to children, generally a very revolting subject, in a manner and style which must tend to catch their attention, and allure them into instruction. Doubts, perhaps, might be urged respecting some of the grammatical principles here inculcated; such as that the *verb simple* and *verb radical* are *different* and *distinct* species of words: whereas, in fact, the *verb radical* of M. Gaultier is nothing more than the *infinitive* of the verb, and the *verb simple* is merely the verb under its modification of *tense* and *mode*: but these are trifling objections to a work which is calculated to give to children general and first

* See Rev. N.S. vol. xxvii. p. 93.

impressions of grammar, and not meant as a finished and critical treatise on it. Altogether, therefore, we think that this course of lectures is well calculated to improve the little gentlemen and ladies for whose use it was designed.

Art. 25. *The Life of Rolla;* a Peruvian Tale. With Moral Inculcations for Youth, &c. &c. By the Author of the Siamese Tales. Small 12mo. 1s. 6d. Newbery.

The adventures of Rolla, after having run through various fortunes, have ended, where they ought to have begun, in serving to amuse little children. The seriousness with which the present story-teller has descanted on his adherence to the plot of the drama is very amusing; it reminds us of the description of the battle of Bosworth by Dr. Corbet's host:

" Besides what of his knowledge he could say,
He had authentic notice from the play."

If the Virgin of the Sun, the Pizarro, and all the other heart-rending exhibitions of this authentic hero, have not already exhausted the lachrymal glands of his Majesty's subjects, they may have the unspeakable satisfaction of bewceping him again in the nursery.

POETRY.

Art. 26. *The First and Fourth Books of the Odes of Horace*, translated into English Verse. 8vo. pp. 130. 2s. 6d. Hatchard. 1799.

Of the difficulty of preserving the beauties of Horace in a translation, so as to convey to the unlearned reader an idea of the elegance and felicity of expression in the original, but one opinion can be entertained. Some men of taste have abandoned the attempt in despair; while others, finding a literal version impracticable, have had recourse to *imitation* as the only mode of exhibiting Horace in English with tolerable success. In the satires, this may be done, as Pope has shewn, by brilliant proofs: but in the odes it cannot be so easily accomplished. Yet we would not prevent repeated trials; and there is some merit in surpassing our predecessors in an unpromising undertaking.

No preface explains to us the object or motive of the present author, in offering to the public a translation of only the first and fourth books of the Odes of Horace. We are not told whether it is meant merely as a *specimen*, or whether the author purposes to satisfy himself with having made this trial of his skill. Be this as it may, however, we have carefully examined it; and perhaps the best mode of giving our classical readers an idea of the rank which it ought to take, among the several translations of Horace, will be by setting down a few of the many passages which arrested our attention in the perusal.

The conclusion of Ode iv. Lib. i.

" *Nec tenerum Lycidam mirabere, quo calet juventus*
Nunc omnis, et mox virgines tepebunt."

which Francis has not attempted to translate, is here rendered, with as much delicacy as may be,

' None there can Lycidas admire,
Whom maids now envy, but shall soon desire.'

Ode v. *Perfusus liquidis odoribus* is not well given by, 'in liquid odours *dressed*:' we do not talk of being dressed in perfumes.

In Ode xiv. the lines

"*Nil pictis timidus navita puppibus*
Fidit,"—

are not happily rendered by

'Not to thy *gaily painted form*
For safety will the seaman trust.'

nor

——"*nec jam sustineant onus*
Sylvæ laborantes,"—

at the beginning of Ode ix., by the line

'And scarce the woods their *plumy* burden bear.'

This line is spoilt by the addition of an incongruous epithet. The Latin poet, by his "*sylvæ laborantes*," forcibly expresses the weight of the snow on them; and we fancy that we see them ready to break under their heavy burden: but the epithet *plumy* destroys this effect.

The expression "*asperas serpentes*," in Ode xxxvii., is rendered the '*gliding* snake;' and the substitution of *pale* Winter, for Horace's "bruma *iners*" in Ode vii. B. iv., is very injudicious. We forgive the translator's representation of Autumn as 'sheaf-binding,' instead of Horace's *pomifer Autumnus*: but *pale* cannot be tolerated in the room of *iners*, for in this epithet consists much of the beauty of the passage, in which the Latin poet describes the march of the seasons.

The "*purpureis ales oloribus*" of the 1st Ode of Book iv. is rendered

'Borne on thy *silver* cygnets, fly.'

The concluding line in Ode iii. Book iv.

"*Quod spiro, et placeo, (si placeo,) tuum est.*"

is spun out in the translation into four:

'By thee, my lyre—my life were given;
By thee I draw the breath of heav'n.
And if my numbers pleasing be,
Melpomene! they please by thee.'

If however we perceive defects, it is true also that we perceive the ability of the translator. Several of the Odes are well rendered. We shall transcribe the whole of the 15th Ode of the first book; the original of which, Gray must have had in view when he wrote his *Bard*; as, also, the *Bard* of Gray must have been in the mind of the present translator.

'Homeward steer'd the Trojan fleet,
That Paris and his Mistress bore;
But, while fresh gales transport the pair
From Sparta's hospitable shore,
Nereus from the wave arose,
Devoted Ilion's ruin to disclose:
His awful voice represt the rising breeze,
And solemn silence hush'd the seas.
"Ill-fated youth! in an unhappy hour
Thou bear'st fair Helen to thy native land;
Whom vengeful Græcia, with united power
And warlike armaments, shall soon demand,

Combin'd

Combin'd Atrides' consort to regain,
And pour destruction swift on Priam's ancient reign.

" Arm the hero, arm the steed,
All the toils of war to bear!
What havoc for the Dardan Race
Mad, furious youth, dost thou prepare!
Pallas mounts her blood-stain'd car,
And arms in all her terrors for the war;
Her snaky shield—her helm with plumes o'erspread
That nodding dreadful shade her head;
In vain, soft boy! of Venus' aid secure,
In flowing curls you form your golden hair;
In vain fond women by your arts allure,
And warble to the lyre some melting air;
In vain from toil and danger you retreat,
And shun in beauty's arms the battle's furious heat.

" Doomed to meet the rage of war,
That strews the field with heaps of slain;
Where iron show'rs obscure the air,
And rapid Ajax scours the plain;
Paris to his fate must yield,
And those bright ringlets sweep the dusty field:
See'st thou not, youth! the foes thou must engage?
Merion fierce—the Pylian sage—
Laertes' son, to whom thy race must yield.—
See! they pursue thee—fearless sons of war,
Teucer and Sthenelus, in battle skill'd,
To dare the foe or guide the rapid car:
See Tydeus' son, who far excels his sire,
Seeks thee thro' all the field, and burns with furious ire.

" Hark! his voice assaults thine ear,
And fills thy soul with wild dismay;
Helen's boasted champion flies,
And, panting, shuns the dreadful fray.
Thus, surpriz'd, the timid deer
Sees in the distant vale the wolf appear;
Suspends his food, his blood with horror chill'd,
And, starting, bounds along the field.
Tho' Peleus' son, in gloomy wrath retreat,
And Ilion's ruin for a while delay;
And view with sullen pleasure from his fleet,
Proud Hector triumph in each dreadful day,
Pass the few destin'd years which Fate requires
And Troy for ever sinks in Græcia's conqu'ring fires."

Much as Horace requires elucidation, not a single note accompanies this translation. Moo-y.

Art. 27. *Ode to the Memory of William Cowper, Esq.* By Thomas Gisborne, M. A. 4to. 1s. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

The Muse of Mr. Gisborne has been very becomingly impressed by the contemplation of Mr. Cowper's peculiar and justly honoured

character, combined with the affecting circumstances attending his ill health, and final removal from a state of affliction to scenes of immortal beatitude. He was not more admired as the *Poet* of religion and morality, than respected and beloved as *a Man*.

Art. 28. *Poems*, by the Rev. John Black, Minister of Butley, Suffolk. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons.

This Reverend Poet professes himself to be

'Content without the *critic*'s praise,
Or *ivy wreaths* or *sprigs of bays*.'

We therefore feel less compunction in withholding panegyric in the present instance, than in the case of some unhappy wight who possessed less philosophy and religion than this worthy gentleman. We venture to tell the reader, however, that he will occasionally find some pretty little effusions among these poems: of which, perhaps, the description given of the writer's own muse, to blunt the fury of *us surly fellows*, is not the worst:

'No copious stream my Muse rolls down,
Thro' forests vast, with horror brown;—
A gentle, tiny, gurgling rill,
She glides adown the heathy hill:—
Yet seated on the daisied brink,
The shepherds of the rill may drink.—

'With mountain pines, she can't compare,
Wide waving in the breezy air;
Nor with the sweetly blushing rose,
Which all around its fragrance throws:
But underneath the shady broom,
A lowly *Pancy*, see her bloom.
Unknit your brows then, Criticks!—smile!—
And let this *Pancy* bloom a while.
Without your storms, alas! 'twill creep,
Poor harmless thing! to lasting sleep.—
Forgotten too, your works shall lie;
For *Nettles*, must like *Pancies* die.'

Wall.

Art. 29. *Lord Auckland's Triumph*: or the Death of Crim. Con. A Pair of Prophetic Odes; &c. &c. with a most interesting Postscript. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 2s. 6d. West and Hughes. 1800.

Art. 30. *Epistle to Peter Pindar*. By the Author of the Baviad. 4to. 2s. Wright.

The playfulness of Peter Pindar has often amused and relieved us, amid the severity of study and the dullness of the herd of writers: but the subject which he has now chosen, and which he has treated in his usual manner, is connected with the morality of the nation, and is ill adapted to the levity of his pen. The caustic satire of Juvenal might again, with but too much justice, be applied to the fashionable manners of the times: but, while P. P. occasionally follows the Roman bard in displaying the practices of dissoluteness, he paints its fascinations more strongly than its mischiefs.

In

In a prose postscript to his poems, Peter attacks several writers whom he conceives to be his opponents in anonymous productions; and among others the author of the Baviad, who has not been tardy in returning blow for blow. This war of words, and of *very foul* words, brings to our recollection a simile in the conclusion of an humorous piece of fugitive poetry, which much diverted us nearly half a century ago, and which we now quote from memory:

" So when a chimney-sweep and barber fight,
The barber beats the chimney-sweeper white;
The chimney-sweeper heaves his ponderous sack,
And, big with vengeance, beats the barber black.
In comes the brick-dustman, with grime o'erspred,
And beats the sweeper and the barber red:—
Red, black, and white, in various clouds are tost,
Till in the dust they raise, the combatants are lost!"

We see no temptation to interfere in such a combat; and we shall certainly keep at a fearful distance from the ring*.

Art. 31. *Contentment;* or Hints to Servants on the present Scarcity. A Poetical Epistle. 4to. 2s. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1800.

This kitchen-poetry is well calculated for the meridian for which it is designed. We shall *content* ourselves with wishing this 'half-starv'd' but well meaning poet a good dinner.

Art. 32. *Aphono and Ethina*, including the Science of Ethics, founded on the Principles of Universal Science. A Poem in Three Cantos. By George Nason. 12mo. pp. 118. 3s. 6d. sewed. Edinburgh, 1799. London, Longman.

Whoever wishes to peruse dissertations on the most abstruse and incomprehensible subjects, on the nature and attributes of God and of the soul, on the connection between matter and spirit, on the origin of thought, on the essence of moral virtue, &c. enveloped in all the profound and sublime beauties of *blank-verse*, may here be gratified. The *story*, which is made the vehicle of all these learned communications, does not occupy three pages of the 118 of which the work consists. Of the philosophy which is here to be found, we shall only say that the writer maintains that *thought is innate*, and *language the work of God*.

As a specimen of the versification, we give the following passage;

——— 'Ideas at birth
Exist; th' imperfect state of thought declares
How few they are. Th' ideas receiv'd thro' sense
Perfection souls; these wide with age augment,
And thro' eternal time new wisdom blooms.
Though various bodies swift the mind affect,
Some give it vigour, others make it sad;
Although inflating persons drown'd, to life
Recalls them; tho' the state of madness chains
The soul convuls'd, impedes its thoughts to flow,
And *memory's page* obscures; my soul perceives,
Amid those mysteries deep, an endless state;
For madness oft is cur'd; the mind becomes

* Since the above was written, these *foul words* have actually produced *foul blows*.

As bright again as day, and every scene
On *memory's page* appears. I here conclude,
The soul its mansion slowly leaves; that on
The wing almost, she still may be recall'd;
I see the first form'd *beings*, not born, on leaves
Of roses *lay*; complete their frames, I see
The hand divine around their *craniums* move;
Their three parts join; enshrine the souls to live
Around the brains, whose parts expos'd to shocks
Immense, concussion strong would rouse the mind,
And wake its energies by pleasure, pain;
It wisely then the means would seek to shun
Each cause of grief; the sacred powers of reason thus
Would bloom sublime, in search of all the means
That tend to joys which form its happiness.'

If this work has but a slight claim to praise for its poetical or philosophical merit, it yet challenges our approbation for being the zealous advocate of religion and virtue.

Wall..

NOVELS.

Art. 33. *Frederic Latimer;* or, The History of a young Man of Fashion. 12mo. 3 Vols. 10s. 6d. sewed. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1799.

This work is the first essay of a young novelist, who comes into the presence of the public with much of that modesty which is generally the concomitant of merit. He appears before them, therefore, in anonymous guise; yet his production is certainly superior to many to which their authors have boldly prefixed their names.

In these volumes, the reader will find the vices and follies of the woman of fashion, the frauds of the gambler, the arts of the coquette, the levity and generosity of youth, and the dignity of worth and wisdom, described with considerable judgment, in the course of a story of which the plot is interesting, and, except one or two incidents towards the *denouement*, sufficiently natural.

Do

Art. 34. *Exhibitions of the Heart.* Dedicated (by Permission) to the Queen. By Miss Hutchinson. 12mo. 4 Vols. 1l. 1s. sewed. Kearsley.

These exhibitions are graced with a list of subscribers, brilliant, but not numerous. Though we cannot recommend the novel as possessing much more merit than the every-day productions of the same kind, it may be read without injury to the good cause of virtue, or the interests of morality; and the remarks on early education, which the fair writer has taken occasion to introduce into her narrative, are just and useful.

It is to be observed that this is a first attempt, and the motives alleged for the undertaking are such as demand respect and encouragement, viz. 'the hope (says Miss H.) of aiding a tender mother and beloved sisters to support a calamitous reverse of fortune, the consequence of the *war*, and my father being detained a prisoner in Holland.'

Capt. B.

Art. 35. *The Force of Prejudice.* A moral Tale. 12mo. 2 Vols. Sold by the Author, Mr. Wildman, No. 18, West-street, Soho.

To administer to the necessities of a distressed parent, we are informed in a preface, was the motive which produced the novel before us;

us: 'a friend suggested to the author, that a literary performance (to be published by subscription) would be the most likely method of acquiring the means to make the provision desired.' The advice was approved; the literary performance was undertaken; and, as appears by a numerous list of subscribers, the author's endeavours have not been fruitless.

In the attempt to combat prejudice, the writer has designed to shew that, without offence to morality or decency, and without injury to human happiness, a female who has erred, who has repented of her errors, and who strictly perseveres in her recovered rectitude, may be again admitted to the full benefits of civilized society. Capt. B...y.

POLITICS, POLICE, &c.

Art. 36. *Moderation is Salvation*, addressed to the People of England at the present Scarcity. By a plain Man. 8vo. 1s. Sewell. 1800.

Non intelligunt homines, quam magnum vectigal sit parsimonia! Few estimate the value of little savings. Scarcity sometimes teaches this lesson: but, unless economy be ripened into a habit, it is a lesson of no avail beyond the period of absolute difficulty. A plentiful harvest having dissipated our late apprehensions of famine, many persons will disregard prudence in the consumption of the bounties of Providence; yet, though we have now *plenty*, and may ere long have *peace* (another good thing) annexed to it, it might not be amiss for heads of families to advert to the consumption of bread in their houses during the late scarcity, and inculcate on their servants the old maxim, *No waste, no want*. Moderation and economy may provide some resource against heavy taxation; and prudent management is always connected with order and regularity.

Though the pamphlet before us is desultory, and though the occasion on which it was written is no longer urgent, it may do some good if it should find attentive readers.

The author endeavours to be pleasant; and, glancing at politics, while he disclaims any interference with them, he exclaims, 'Stand to your arms, Britons! Strike home, *and spare the quartern loaf!*' Moo.y.

Art. 37. *The Story of an Injured Gentleman*, in a Letter from John Bull to a Person in the North. 8vo. 1s. Chapple.

This story is an allegorical tale in favour of the Irish Union, after the model of the celebrated History of John Bull: but its resemblance to its prototype consists more in a disregard to decency, than in wit and humour. O.W.

Art. 38. *France, after the Revolution of Bonaparte* on the Eighth of November, 1799. Hastily translated from a French Pamphlet, intitled "*Les Adieux à Bonaparte.*" 8vo. pp. 56. 2s. Wright. 1800.

The production of some Gallic royalist, designed to persuade Bonaparte to follow the example of General Monk. He is told that, whether in peace or in war, amid successes or defeats, he has every thing to lose, and that 'he cannot rise but by descending;' he is therefore intreated 'to fulfil their (the royalists') prayers, and atchieve

his glory.' The author of this ardent supplication, however, fills the preceding part of his pamphlet with very unconciliating ingredients. He tells the Chief Consul, that 'he dares not remain at Paris, nor go to Dijon; that he has broken the republican spell; that he has dethroned the press, the people, and opinion; that he is surrounded with curses and poignards, and that there is no safety for the nation under his government.'—If we mistake not, this pamphlet was written prior to the battle of Marengo, and consequently under circumstances very different from those in which the belligerent powers now find themselves. Moo:

Art. 39. *Reasons against refusing to Negotiate with France.* By an Approver of the Measures of Administration, during the former Periods of the War. 8vo. pp. 49. 1s. 6d. Faulder. 1800.

This quondam approver of Mr. Pitt's measures now *turns tail* on our persevering minister, because he conceives that the great danger from French principles is over; that the situation of the country requires peace; and that, should England and France continue the contest till both are exhausted, a third power may slip in and swallow up both*. He wishes, however, to have it understood that, though he would not any longer make the restoration of the Bourbons the object of the war, he would subscribe to nothing but an honourable peace. D.o

LAW.

Art. 40. *Slight Hints on a few Duties of the Subordinate Ministerial Officers of a County*, and the Clerk of the Justice: a short Comment on the making of Wills, and Observations on Family Settlements and Tenures, with a Dissertation on Contracts, and Bills of Exchange; also useful Precedents in the Appendix; calculated for a Country Reader, by one of the Profession. 8vo. pp. 110. 2s. 6d. Treppass.

The title-page gives a view of the heterogeneous contents of this strange and absurd publication: but to obtain an adequate idea of the manner in which it is executed, the reader must have recourse to the pamphlet itself; though he will probably think that half a crown is too large a sum for the gratification of his curiosity. S.R.

Art. 41. *A Plan for the effectual Distribution of Bankrupt Estates;* with Remarks on the Losses to which the Public are subject, by the Failure and Misconduct of Assignees. By M. Concanen, jun. 8vo. 6d. West. 1800.

The complaints, which this author makes, of the losses resulting from the dishonesty of assignees, are in part well-founded: but the difficulty arises, we think, from the infirmity of human nature, and from the impossibility of applying laws, which are general in their operation, to the circumstances of every particular case, rather than from any omission or inadequacy in the laws themselves.—The provisions of the statute 5 George the Second, are rendered more effectual

* Perhaps the author recollects the well-known fable of the two men finding an oyster, and referring to a lawyer to decide to which of the two it should belong.

by

by a wise and beneficial order passed by the present Chancellor in the year 1794; which is calculated to answer all the purposes, in our estimation, of the plan proposed in this pamphlet, and without incurring the necessary expence of such a measure. The author writes with temperance and good-sense.

S.R.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 42. *An Examination of the Merits and Tendency of the Pursuits of Literature.* Part Second. By William Burdon, A. M. formerly Fellow of Emanuel College, Cambridge. 8vo. pp. 143. 3s. sewed. Clarke. 1800.

In our review for April last, p. 443. we noticed the first part of this examination. In this second portion, Mr. B. continues his spirited animadversions on the Pursuits of Literature; and, with an ingenuous and manly freedom, he reprobates whatever he conceives to be narrow and illiberal in the remarks and observations of this cloud-enveloped writer. Mr. B. ridicules the author of the Pursuits, for saying that "he comes forward *boldly*," when he so studiously conceals himself; and it is perfectly fair to comment with a smile on such strange language from an anonymous writer. It would have been prudent, however, (not to say liberal,) in Mr. Burdon, had he regarded the author of the Pursuits as a *non inventus*; which would have prevented him from making the personal attack that occurs in p. 8, on the supposed writer: an attack which imitates the very conduct against which he points his indignant censure. He has an undoubted right to give his opinion both of the language and sentiments of this celebrated publication: but he would have fought with more honour in this literary warfare, had he vindicated from gross and malignant abuse, without descending to *employ* the least particle of it.

As a farther specimen of the style and spirit of this work, we shall make a short extract:

'Having now examined particularly the first part of this far-famed work, I will review the substance and spirit of it at length: it may be expected that I should have taken some notice of the poetry, if such it can be called; but as I hold it, except in a few bright passages, beneath all notice, and merely as a vehicle for the notes, or as Mr. Stevens ludicrously said, as pegs to hang them on, I will make no apology for passing it by: the whole spirit of the book is contained in the notes—in them it is that the author has let loose his malignity, venom, and ill-nature, the accumulated treasures of his curiosity, the long stored fruits of his gossiping researches: they contain all the scandal of literary chit-chat, the pert flippancy of a young gossip, mixed with the graver ill nature of an old maid; but the character which predominates is of a serious nature, for when he attempts to joke, we see it is an effort beyond his power—he is sometimes humorous, but never lively, for his stile is so generally that of reprehension, that his humor is like flashes of lightning from a dark cloud, that render the gloom more terrible; he sometimes makes a play upon words, but seldom reaches a pun, and every attempt of this kind is marked in italics, lest it

should be overlooked—but I should forgive him the want of the lighter qualifications of a satirist, if he possessed the dignity of the higher: he is sometimes, to be sure, on stilts, and talks very big, but then he knows that nobody sees him, and that his bluster will cost him nothing; if he was obliged to meet those men openly, of whom he has said such injurious things, we should hear him talk in a different strain, for he can be very smooth before faces, and make a man believe he is much his friend, when he as cordially hates him.'

In referring to the quotations interspersed through the Pursuits, Mr. B. is not always correct: but, as the pamphlet abounds with errors of the press, the inaccurate references may be of this number.

Art. 43. *A Dissertation on the modern Style of altering antient Cathedrals*, as exemplified in the Cathedral of Salisbury. By the Rev. John Milner, M. A. F. S. A. 4to. pp. 54. with a Plate. 3s. 6d. Nichols.

The Society of Antiquaries having rejected this Dissertation, the author sends it to the press:

——— "'S death I'll print it,
And shame the fools."

We are not sure that Mr. M. will obtain much credit by this appeal. As proceeding from a Catholic, the former part of his objections to the alterations in Salisbury Cathedral are perfectly in character: but could he suppose that they would operate with any force on Protestants, on the admirers of the *reformation*, which he terms 'a change of religion in the 16th century'? Though we have no superstitious veneration for relicks, we would not rudely disturb them: but, if great repairs and alterations be projected in such an edifice as the Cathedral of Salisbury, it is probable that the memorials of many Saints will be displaced; and indeed it is unavoidable. The question here is, have the alterations been conducted with judgment and taste; with a due regard to the style and character of the building; and with an attention to the general beauty and effect? We have not visited Salisbury Cathedral since the alterations, and therefore we cannot answer this question: but, knowing the reputation which Mr. Wyatt has acquired in the line of what is called Gothic Architecture, we should be disposed to think in the affirmative: yet we would have the merits of this accusation discussed, let the motive for bringing it forwards be what it may. Whether it was preferred merely to exclude Mr. Wyatt from the Society of Antiquaries, or with the more laudable view of cherishing correctness of taste, we are not displeased at its being made public. Discussion can do no harm; and a watchful eye should be kept on our beautiful sacred edifices.

Mr. M. says that the proportions of the Cathedral, and the due arrangement and relation of its several parts with each other, are confounded and destroyed;—that the Communion table is displaced from its former honourable situation, and rendered mean and contemptible in the eyes of the people; that it wants rails, and has more the appearance of a toilette than of a Communion table;—that the execution

execution of the screen of the choir is flat and incorrect;—and that, as to the edifice at large, it is no longer a Cathedral church but a portico.

He farther observes that 'the form of antient Cathedrals obstinately resists the plans of modern architects, and is not susceptible of that sort of uniformity which they so much admire; and that the new ornaments introduced into the Cathedral of Sarum are different from the character of the fabric itself.' If the latter remark be well founded, Mr. Wyatt has committed a great fault; as to the preceding one, experience must prove whether the general effect can be heightened, by removing a number of diminutive and now *useless* chapels. Papists may be piously anxious to have them preserved; and Protestants should not wantonly destroy them. Ours is a rational respect for the whole edifice, not a superstitious veneration for every diminutive part.

Moo-y.

Art. 44. *Morality united with Policy*; or Reflections on the Old and New Government of France; and on various important Topics of Civil and Ecclesiastical Reform. By Robert Fellowes, A. B. of St. Mary Hall Oxford, Author of a Picture of Christian Philosophy, &c. 12mo. 2s. 6d. White. 1800.

This writer may take for his motto the couplet which Pope applies to himself;

"In moderation placing all my glory,
While Tories call me Whig, and Whigs a Tory."

If he pleases not the violent and intemperate of any party, the calm and dispassionate of all parties will peruse his Reflections with pleasure, even though they may not yield to them their entire assent.

No political systems are precisely in practice what they are in theory. On this principle, Mr. Fellowes apologizes for the Old Government of France; which, he contends, was more an imaginary than a real despotism. In this remark there may be some truth: yet we prefer a free constitution, with some occasional acts of despotic rule, to a despotic constitution of which the gloom and pressure are relieved by a few extraneous rays of liberty. The small number of prisoners found in the Bastile, at the time of its demolition, certainly evinces the mildness of Louis XVI., and that the odious power of "*lettres de cachet*" was scarcely exercised: yet, while the idea of a Bastile presented itself to the imagination, its effect was as terrific and as destructive of liberty, as if it had been crouded with miserable victims. This remark will not palliate the horrid despotism which, under another form, succeeded the revolution. 'It is true (as Mr. F. observes) that the French at this period mistook the degree of liberty of which they were capable:' but, with his disapprobation of their proceedings, he does not abandon any of the principles of true liberty, as many are so apt to do. He neatly draws the line between a well-tempered and an excessive jealousy of the executive power; adding, 'without a moderate jealousy of the prerogative, public liberty cannot be preserved;

served; and, with a violent, excessive, and unreasonable distrust of it, public liberty must be lost.'

In assigning the remote and original cause of the excesses and enormities of the French revolution, Mr. F. looks to the clergy; and on them, perhaps, or rather on the ecclesiastical system, part of the blame may fall: though it may not be altogether fair to completely exonerate the despotic government, since the character of a people is formed by the union of its civil with its religious institutions. The religious system of France, under the Monarchy, was composed too much of ceremony and superstition; and the chief business of the clergy was not made to consist in the serious inculcation of the great duties of justice and humanity, and the sacred principles of moral obligation. So far Mr. Fellowes is right; and moreover in maintaining that 'good and enlightened morals protect the soul from the noxious vapours of bigotry and superstition;' yet, with all our reverence for good and enlightened morals, and with all our conviction of the importance of their being taught in preference to ceremonial and pompous observances, the clergy of the Romish church are not so much to be charged with *neglect* as their system with *defect* in this point: though we mean not to extenuate the infidelity and immorality which, we fear, found its way among them.

When Mr. Fellowes brings his observations home to the state and circumstances of his own country, he offers a variety of judicious and liberal observations, which merit attention, but which at the present period are not likely to draw any serious notice. Ecclesiastical and civil reforms are not popular subjects. It may be a greater recommendation of this well-written pamphlet, to say that it contains an able, temperate, and well-bottomed vindication of the propriety of an established church. The author also considers it as useful policy, in every state, 'to set apart a certain portion of its land, or of its productive industry, to moral purposes.'

For an account of Mr. F.'s Picture of Christian Philosophy, see M. R. vol. 30. N. S. p. 110.

Art. 45. *Historical and Philosophical Memoirs of Pius the Sixth, and of his Pontificate*, down to the Period of his retirement into Tuscany; containing curious and interesting Particulars, derived from the most authentic sources of Information, concerning his private Life, his disputes with the different Powers of Europe, the Causes which led to the Subversion of the Papal Throne, and the Roman Revolution. Translated from the French. 2 Vols. 8vo. about 350 Pages in each Vol. 12s. Boards. Robinsons. 1799.

In the Appendix to the 29th vol. of our Review, p. 563. we gave an account, at some length, of the original of this very interesting work; which details the particulars of an event that has been eagerly desired by the Protestant part of Europe, for centuries past:—we mean the subversion of the papal tyrannical power. It is impossible, however, for the most zealous Protestant, if he possesses any Christian feelings, to refrain from pitying the unfortunate

Pius

Pius VI. on whose pontificate so much mortification has been accumulated, and who was destined to sustain those shocks which generally precede the overthrow of long-established power. On the other hand, it is equally impossible for the honest Catholic to deny that the Pope's misfortunes were in a considerable degree the fruit of his own errors, which aided the operation of the circumstances of the times, so unpropitious to the kind of government over which he presided. As these memoirs are termed *philosophical* as well as historical, and proceed from the French school, the reader may guess at the nature of the reflections with which the details are interspersed. No lenity is shewn either to the principles of popery, or to the temporal sovereignty of the Popes of Rome.

The translation is, on the whole, neatly as well as faithfully executed: but we are surprised to find the word *grade* used as an English term for *rank*, and *donator* for *donor*. Moo-y.

Art. 46. *A Letter to the Inhabitants of Sheffield*, on a Subject which has lately made, and is likely to make, much Noise in the Town and Neighbourhood; or a short Peal on the New Bells. 12mo. 3d. Sheffield.

We have seen different essays on bells, grave and jocular, but we have never known the chimes so ill rung as in the present attempt. The author has talked rationally and mystically, allegorically and orthodoxically, and every way but wittily. Fer.r

Art. 47. *Biographical Sketches of Henrietta Duchess of Orleans, and Louis of Bourbon Prince of Condé.* To which are added, Bossuet's Orations, pronounced at their interment. Translated from the French, with select Extracts from other Orations by the same Author. 12mo. 2s. Clarke.

The character of Bossuet, Bishop of Meaux, is well known; and his learning, his eloquence, and his zeal for the Roman Catholic religion, have been often celebrated. Some of his works have met with universal approbation; and even those protestant divines, who have controverted his theological opinions, acknowlege his general ability, and particularly his dexterity in managing an argument.

The funeral orations of Bossuet, when they were delivered, were the theme of general applause; and Voltaire, Rollin, and the greater part of the French critics, never speak of them but in terms of admiration, and the most exaggerated praise. The orations here selected are interesting from the rank and character of the persons who are the subjects of them, and in point of composition are inferior to none that the Bishop ever wrote. The translator's duty is executed with freedom, fidelity, and spirit.

The biographical sketches contain nothing of importance; they are merely sufficient to render the orations intelligible, and for this purpose only perhaps they were prefixed. Yet we scarcely know two characters in modern history, whose lives would have afforded a greater fund of entertaining and instructive anecdote, than Henrietta Duchess of Orleans and Louis Prince of Condé. The amiable qualities and untimely end of the former rendered her the object of universal love

and

and pity:—the latter astonished Europe by his distinguished talents and great military exploits, and proved to France, at different periods of his life, the subject of admiration and joy, of terror and grief.

Mr. Jerningham is the reputed editor of this little work.

Art. 48. *An Essay on the Preservation of Shipwrecked Mariners;* in Answer to the Prize Questions proposed by the Royal Humane Society. "1st. What are the best Means of preserving Mariners from Shipwreck. 2d. Of keeping the Vessel afloat? 3d. Of giving Assistance to the Crew, when Boats dare not Venture out to their Aid." By A. Fothergill, M.D. F.R.S., &c. &c. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Johnson, &c. 1799.

Of the modes here pointed out "to preserve mariners from shipwreck," many are so obvious that it adds little to the merit of this essay to have detailed them; and some are so briefly mentioned, that reference must be had to other books in order to understand them. With respect to the second and third questions of the Society, however, the nautical reader will find some information, and many hints which may lead to useful improvements. Those respecting the means of affording assistance to the crew of a distressed vessel, off a lee-shore, when boats cannot venture to their assistance, by forming a line of communication with the shore, are perhaps not the least valuable.

In the conclusion, we have an account of the Humane Institution at Bamborough Castle, for the preservation of lives and property from shipwreck; and we cannot help wishing, with Dr. Fothergill, that this institution were imitated in every part of the coast, where local causes render vessels peculiarly liable to be cast-away.

We refrain from making extracts, because we would rather recommend the whole work to general perusal. Humanity and policy concur to render the subject highly interesting and important; and if but *one* life should be saved in consequence of the hints here submitted to consideration, the really *Humane* Society to which the work owes its origin, and the benevolent author, will no doubt feel highly gratified.

Art. 49. *An Examination of a Sermon preached at Cambridge*, by Robert Hall, M.A. intitled, Modern Infidelity, &c. With an Appendix, containing Observations upon a Critique on the Sermon, in the Monthly Review for February, 1800. By Anthony Robinson. 8vo. 2s. Smith, &c.

Mr. Robinson has hazarded a variety of pointed criticisms on Mr. Hall's sermon, and on the reviewer's account of it; had they been offered to the public in a liberal and gentlemanly style, they might have been intitled to some notice: in their present state, we cannot condescend to bestow any attention on them. Mr. Hall will exercise his own judgment.

Art. 50. *Reflections on the relative Situations of Master and Servant*, historically and politically considered; the Irregularities of Servants; the Employment of Foreigners; and the general Inconvenience resulting from the Want of proper Regulations. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Miller.

The object of this pamphlet is to enforce the necessity of some regulations respecting domestic servants, and to propose a plan for that effect. The evils attendant on the present want of some system of

police are, we believe, correctly as well as forcibly stated; and the hints for a remedy of these evils are certainly deserving of attention, at a time when a bill of regulation is (or lately was) before parliament. O.W.

Art. 51. *A Tale of Rosamund Gray and Old Blind Margaret.* By Charles Lamb. 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Lee and Hurst.

In the perusal of this pathetic and interesting story, the reader, who has a mind capable of enjoying rational and moral sentiment, will find much gratification. Mr. Lamb has here proved himself skilful in touching the nicest feelings of the heart, and in affording great pleasure to the imagination, by exhibiting events and situations which, in the hands of a writer less conversant with the springs and energies of the *moral sense*, would have made a very "*sorry figure.*" Wall.e.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 52. *Occasioned by a late desperate Attempt on the Life of his Majesty.* Preached at Christ's Church in Bath, June 8, 1800. By the Rev. C. Daubeny, LL.B. Author of the "Guide to the Church," &c. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard.

As it is the duty of the Christian preacher to mark and to improve the important occurrences of Providence, we should wonder if our pious and loyal clergy omitted to make his Majesty's late very providential escape from assassination a subject of their serious addresses. Mr. D. observes, on this occasion, that, though the politics of the Bible be plain and simple, it, by commanding us to *Fear God and to honour the King*, establishes the origin and nature of government, and condemns resistance to lawful authority: but, when he proceeds to combat a position of Dr. Paley, very analogous to his own, and indeed founded on the plainness and simplicity of Gospel politics, we think that he is unfortunate. More we need not say here. The discussion to which it leads is not suited to a sermon, nor does the question require to be agitated *. It is sufficient for the clergyman to urge the importance of religion to social man; and to call on his flock to be piously thankful for every blessing conferred by Providence on the person and government of the King, which, with the preservation of his life, will add to the tranquillity and happiness of the people. A clergyman, however, should be studiously cautious of misleading his audience; and we wonder that, after the trial of Hadfield, in which his insanity and the causes of it were so fully ascertained, Mr. D. should ascribe it to the perusal of publications of an infidel and immoral tendency. Hadfield derived his insanity from the field of honour, not from the recesses of sedition. Moo-y.

Art. 53. *Reflections on the Revolution of a Century.* Preached at the Cathedral Church of Wells, June 22, 1800. By George Beaver, B.D. Rector of Trent, Somerset, &c. 4to. 1s. Sealey.

There is something of the air of a fast sermon in these reflections of Mr. Beaver; which are partly pious and partly political, and are calculated to excite us, in our social and religious capacity, to gratitude, circumspection, and virtue. Do

* Mr. D. says that 'all rebellion on earth contains a strong spice of the devil's original sin.'

Art.

Art. 54. *A Sermon on the Death of the Right Honourable Earl and Viscount Howe*, preached in the Garrison Chapel, Portsmouth, August 11, 1799. By the Rev. John Davies. 4to. pp. 17. Printed at Portsmouth.

A brief tribute to the memory of a most distinguished Naval Commander, accompanied with serious and impressive reflections on human mortality. Text Heb. ix. 27. A few particulars of the noble admiral's gallant actions are added as notes.

Moo.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The second letter of *Marcellus* has not had the effect which the writer designed to produce, of removing our doubts respecting his motives: it has rather confirmed them. We again tell him that *we know* and desire to know nothing of the alleged facts of which he speaks; and that we pay no regard to anonymous assertions, either in print or in manuscript. We shall obey no dictates on this or any other occasion, but those of our own consciences and judgments; and we shall most certainly endeavour to avoid a contest, of such a nature as that in which it appears to be the wish of *Marcellus* to engage us As far as we agree with him in opinion, he will observe that coincidence manifested: beyond this, his expectations will be fruitless. G.2.

In a letter signed C. R. referring to our account of Mr. Tomlins's edit. of Jacob's Law Dictionary, (see Rev. vol. xxiv. p. 442.) the writer says that the ambiguity which we noticed under the title *Executor*, respecting the sons and daughters of a person said to die *without issue*, arose from an omission of the word *other*, in transcribing from Mr. Justice Blackstone; whose words are, "In exclusion of the *other* sons and daughters, (who were) the brothers and sisters of the deceased." Do

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A letter from Mr. Lipscomb points out to us an inadvertency in our account of his observations on Asthma, in our last Review, p. 310. which we very willingly correct. The raillery directed against Dr. Bree, which we designed to notice, occurs at p. 91. not 89. and relates not to the doctrine of acid perspiration, but to the sensible qualities of the urine in asthma. Mr. L. has hazarded a conjecture that the cause of asthma depends on the predominance of an acid in the serum of the blood. Fer.

A small volume of poems, printed at Manchester, has reached us: but, as it was published three years ago, we must beg to decline all farther notice of it.

The packet and letter from Londonderry are received, and will be hereafter noticed.

*** In the Review for July, p. 252. l. 17 fr. bott. for 'seems,' r. *seem.*

☞ With the Review for September will be published, as usual, The APPENDIX to the XXXIId Vol. of THE MONTHLY REVIEW; containing large accounts of important FOREIGN PUBLICATIONS, with the *General Title*, *Table of Contents*, and *Index* to the volume.

See p. 360. l. 2.
432. l. 6. fr. bott.

APPENDIX

TO THE

THIRTY-SECOND VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

ART. I. *Mémoires de l'Institut National*, &c.; *i. e.* Memoirs of the National Institute of France.

[*Article continued from the last Appendix.*]

MATHEMATICAL *and* PHYSICAL SCIENCES, VOL. I. *concluded.*

CHEMISTRY.

On the Structure of the Crystals called Zeolites, and on the Electrical Properties of some of them. By M. HAÜY.

FEW names in mineralogy are so vague as the term *zeolite*. The property of forming a jelly with acids, or that of swelling and puffing under the blow-pipe, it has in common with other substances; and with respect to the clustering radiations of its prisms, this proceeds merely from confused crystallization, and forms no prominent and distinctive character. M. HAÜY divides the mineral bodies, comprehended under this general denomination, into four species; of which he describes the external forms, and, with the help of his ingenious theory, developes the interior structure. The first is the kind discovered by *Cronstedt*, and the last is what is usually called *cubic zeolite*. The former, on being heated, manifests electricity, like the tourmaline and topaz. The author had observed the same property before in calamine, or the oxyd of zinc, and in the calcareous borate.

Observations on the Strontian. By M. PELLETIER.—Some doubts having been still entertained, whether the strontian be intitled to the rank of a primitive earth, this able chemist was

induced to make some experiments on it: but the want of specimens prevented him from pursuing his analyses as far as he wished. He draws the same conclusion which his predecessors had deduced.—By combining the several observations of *Hope*, *Klaproth*, and *Pelletier*, it appears that the carbonate of strontian is specifically lighter than that of barytes, has not its poisonous quality, and quits more freely by heat the carbonic gas; that calcined strontian dissolves in cold and warm water, though more profusely in the latter, and affording crystals on cooling, (a property, however, which barytes also possesses;) that the nitrate and muriate of strontian seem more soluble than the same salts with a barytic base, and give a red colour to the flame of alcohol instead of a yellowish white; that strontian contains no lime; and lastly, that the nitrate of strontian is not decomposed by the prussiate of potash. These characters, though not strongly marked, appear sufficient to establish the existence of strontian as a distinct and independent earth.

Process for dissolving elastic Gum in sulphuric Æther. By the Same.—The property of æther to dissolve elastic gum was first communicated to the public by *Macquer:* but it has not constantly succeeded. M. PELLETIER, therefore, recommends the following method. Boil the gum for the space of an hour in common water: then cut it into very small shreds, and boil it an hour longer. It will now have become quite soft, and in this state introduce it into a matrass containing rectified sulphuric æther. In a few hours, the æther will penetrate the gum, accompanied with considerable swelling, and after a few days the solution will be complete. In this way will be obtained very strong solutions, white and transparent; the heterogeneous and fuliginous matter settling to the bottom. They might be very useful as varnish for defending delicate specimens, whether of minerals or insects, from the contact of the air.

Examination of the Facts which Dr. Girtanner cites in favour of his Opinion on the Nature of the Radical of the Muriatic Acid. By J. B. VAN MONS.—It would be impossible to give, in few words, any distinct idea of these arguments, or to state the facts on which they rest. Dr. *Girtanner* seems not to have been more fortunate than his precursors, in the inquiry after the basis of the muriatic acid. The hydrogene, in which he makes it to consist, was apparently derived from water present in the acid, or from other substances brought into action.

New Experiments tending to decide whether Hydrogene forms the Radical of the Muriatic Acid. By the Same.—These experiments are delicate and ingenious. M. VAN MONS tried the action of the

the muriatic acid on charcoal and phosphorus, as incited by heat or electricity, and noted the circumstances which attend the decomposition of ammoniac by the oxyds of mercury. The results confirm his preceding conclusion.

Observations on the two Processes for making Verdegris, or Acetite of Copper. By J. A. CHAPTAL.—The process used at Montpellier, from time immemorial, consists in causing the *marc de raisins*, or the substance which remains after the grapes have been pressed, to ferment, and to stratify it with plates of copper, for the purpose of oxydating the metal. The mode practised within these few years past at Grenoble is merely to assist the oxydation, by sprinkling with distilled vinegar the plates of copper disposed in vats. The verdegris of Montpellier feels clammy and unctuous; its fracture is silky; it loses half its weight by drying; and it is scarcely soluble in water. The verdegris of Grenoble is drier, and of a deeper greenish blue; it has a crystalline fracture, and is more soluble in water. The former sells somewhat cheaper, and is successfully employed by painters. The latter is preferred for the operations of dying, as it gives more vivacity to the colours. By analysis, M. CHAPTAL found that the components, in 100 parts of the verdegris of Montpellier and of that of Grenoble, are as follow:

Montpellier.		Grenoble.	
Carbonic acid	8.00	Carbonic acid	9.10
Acetous acid very weak, and empyreumatic	65.15	Water slightly acidulated	13.05
		Strong and coloured acid	53.95
Copper	22.50	Copper	20.90
Carbone	4.35	Carbone	3.00

Hence we may explain the distinctive properties of these two kinds of verdegris. That of Montpellier is a mixture of the oxyd and acetite of copper, but that of Grenoble consists almost wholly of the acetite of copper.

Observations on the Soap of Wool, and its Uses in the Arts. By the Same.—The vast consumption of soap in manufactures is an object of national consideration, and the plan recommended by M. CHAPTAL promises to be productive of considerable savings. He directs to make a caustic alkaline lye, with wood-ashes and one-tenth part of lime, or with potash and one-third of lime; to strain and boil this, and keep adding small portions of old wool or clippings of cloth, as fast as they are absorbed, stirring the liquor in the meantime. The quantity of woollen matter, which the lye will dissolve, depends on its degree of concentration and heat of ebullition, but will generally amount to one-fourth or third part. The soap thus

formed is soft, of a greyish green colour, dissolves readily in water, but communicates an animal odour; which, however, is discharged by washing, and exposure to the air.—The next attempt of this able chemist, and in which he succeeded beyond expectation, was to compose a hard soap in a similar way, with soda. It was employed in the preparation for dyeing cotton stuffs. It gave the cotton a grey tint, but this was not prejudicial to the dye.

Observations on a Petrifaction of Mount Terre-Noire, in the Department of the Loire. By M. DAUBENTON.—This substance was found in a quarry of micaceous free-stone, immediately above coal mines. It was eight or ten feet long, lying embedded in the direction of the layers of the stone, and invested with a coat of coal. It was taken for a portion of a tree penetrated by a quartzoze infiltration; and the texture and knots in the wood, it was pretended, were distinctly visible. M. DAUBENTON, sensible of the frequent mistakes committed on the subject of petrified wood, had, in a memoir on *pechstein*, published in the year 1787, established a criterion, in the appearance of medullary prolongations on the transverse section. This was wanting in the petrifaction of *Terre-Noire;* which inclined this experienced naturalist to refer it to the family of the madrepores; and his conjecture was confirmed by a close examination. The petrifaction in question belonged to the astroites.—In general, animal substances are more disposed to petrify than vegetable.

NATURAL HISTORY *and* OECONOMICS.

Observations on the Generic Characters in Natural Histo By M. DAUBENTON.—These miscellaneous remarks are solid and judicious. The sentiments of the late venerable M. DAUBENTON merit attention; and they may have some influence in correcting that trifling and slavish spirit which unhappily infects the study of natural history. He admits the utility and even necessity of nomenclature, but assigns to it a very subordinate rank. He witnessed the rise, the progress, and the adoption of the Linnean system. He poignantly censures the idea of a *school* in natural history, and remarks that blind submission to authority is peculiarly hurtful in science. 'The true philosophy of naturalists (he says) is diligently to observe nature.'

Observations on the Juices of some Plants, and on the Means by which the Carbone is circulated in the vegetable Organs, and deposited for Nourishment. By J. A. CHAPTAL, *Associate.*—The milky juice of the euphorbia suggested this inquiry. It was obtained in three ways;—by incision during the season of sap, by

by cutting the stalks with scissars and washing them in water, or by expression. This last mode gives a juice mixed with extract, greenish, and with different properties. Exposed in a saucer to the air, it becomes frequently covered with a membranous pellicle of a hard brittle consistence; and when this is removed, it will form others in succession. The white juice of the euphorbia procured by the two former modes is extremely gluey; and if left for some time either in open or close vessels, it deposits a white matter, exactly similar in colour and consistence to the caseous portion precipitated from milk by the acids. That matter is more easily obtained by heating the juice with acids; and the oxygenated muriatic developes it most abundantly, and in the state of the highest purity. It was this product which M. CHAPTAL principally employed in his experiments. It results, that the precipitate of the juice of the euphorbia consists of one-third part of vegetable fibre, and two thirds of a resinous substance. These two ingredients are rendered soluble or miscible in water with the help of the extract: but they separate, by rest, or the action of heat, the oxygene gas, the acids, the fixed alkalis, and alcohol. One of the most remarkable properties of the precipitate is that it combines perfectly with the oils, and forms a gluey and soapy compound. The milky substance obtained from emulsive seeds, and the fermented juices of sainfoin and lucerne, afford similar products. Other vegetables, subjected to analysis, manifest the same properties, though in a different degree. In general, the seeds are the parts of plants which yield the largest precipitate; nature seeming to provide a liberal store of fibrous or carbonaceous matter, for the nourishment and expansion of the vegetable germ.—These phænomena exhibit a striking analogy between the animal and vegetable œconomy. Milk and blood resemble, in their qualities and products, these lacteous juices. Hence we can discern the means by which water is enabled to dissolve carbone, and convey it through the vessels of a plant, to deposit it in fibre. Hence also the explanation of some practices in the dyeing of cotton; in which M. CHAPTAL, having an establishment of that sort himself, is particularly conversant.

Memoir on the glutinous Part of Wheat, By M. TESSIER.—It appears from these scanty and imperfect remarks, that the different sorts of wheat give different quantities of the glutinous or vegeto-animal portion, more or less friable, and amounting when moist to the third of the meal, but when dry scarcely exceeding one-eighth part. Manure contributes nothing to the formation of this singular substance.

Memoir on the Organization of the Monocotyledons, or Plants with a single seminal leaflet. By M. DESFONTAINES.—The seeds of plants include one or two leaflets, which are disclosed immediately subsequent to germination. The former have been termed univalvular, unilobated, or monocotyledons; the latter bivalvular, bilobated, or dicotyledons. These two grand divisions of the vegetable tribes, first established by Cesalpinus, have been since adopted by the most celebrated botanists, and advantageously employed in their systematic arrangements: but it appears that a corresponding distinction, not less striking, prevails in the organic structure of plants. M. DESFONTAINES has carefully examined the series of palms, grasses, asparaguses, lilies, narcissuses, ferns, and mosses; in the present memoir he describes some of those which have ligneous stalks; and he proposes to treat, on a future occasion, of such as are herbaceous and annual. He thus characterizes these two great natural classes:

'First Division.

'Vegetables which have not distinct concentric layers, and of which the solidity decreases from the circumference to the centre; pith interposed between the fibres; no medullary prolongations in diverging rays—*The monocotyledons.*

'Second Division.

'Vegetables which have distinct concentric layers, of which the solidity decreases from the centre to the circumference; pith included in a longitudinal canal; medullary prolongations in diverging rays—*The dicotyledons.*'

The descriptions are elucidated by several elegant engravings.

Dissertation on the Genus PHALLUS. By M. VENTENAT.—We must refer our botanical readers to the volume, for an accurate idea of this paper. The descriptions are illustrated by excellent engravings.

State of Agriculture in the Canary Islands. By H. A. TESSIER.—Convinced that the only way of improving husbandry was by studying the rural practices of different countries, M. TESSIER in 1785 printed a series of questions, which were circulated over France, and were afterward copied, and dispersed through most parts of the globe. It was then his intention to draw up, from a variety of materials, a scientific view of French agriculture. His ideas having gradually enlarged, he wished to avail himself of favourable circumstances to procure statements of the agriculture of foreign countries. In the prosecution of these inquiries, he experienced infinite difficulties: but he has notwithstanding obtained a mass of valuable information. What he offers at present is only a

small specimen concerning the agriculture of the Canaries, collected from the answers of the vice-consul of France in those islands.

The islands comprehended under the appellation of Canary are situated about the 28th degree of north latitude. The most considerable is Teneriffe, and next to it in extent is the great Canary. The rainy season sets in about the end of November, and continues with intervals until the month of March. This period corresponds to winter, though it never snows, except on the mountains, especially the Peak. During the summer months, not a drop of rain falls near the coast, where the sky is then invariably clear, and the heat most intense. Yet at Laguna, a village seated on the brow of the mountain, and only a league distant from Sainte Croix, they have frequent fogs and rain. The clouds melt and dissolve away as they approach the sea.—There are no rivers in Teneriffe, but only mountain torrents, called in Spanish *barrancos*; which, in winter, sweep away much useful soil. The traces of volcanic fire every where strike the eye. The neighbourhood of Sainte Croix consists of savage mountains piled together, and bearing herbs only fit for goats to browse, with many of the prickly euphorbia. Higher up the country, the soil is richer, better cultivated, and abundantly productive. It is a sort of clay resting on calcined rock, which in every district occurs at a certain depth.

Little attention is paid in these islands to the important article of manure. Marle and sea-ware are totally neglected, and animal dung is only laid on the adjoining fields of maize or potatoes; to which it is carried directly from the stables. For the food of man, they grow wheat, very little rye, much barley and maize, potatoes, French beans, and ticks, called *garbansos*. As provender for cattle, they raise a few lupines, pease, lentils, beans, and a small quantity of oats. Flax, aniseeds, and coriander, are almost the only productions cultivated for the arts. Archil and sumach grow spontaneously. The archil, which is esteemed of superior quality, is gathered by the peasants on the naked rocks. Kali, termed in Spanish *vidriera* *, grows along the sea-shore, and might afford as good soda as that of Alicant. The natives use only the seeds, which are separated from the plant by washing, and, being slightly roasted, are ground, to make a sort of *gofio*. The cotton shrub and the sugar cane also thrive in the Canaries, yet are much neglected. Wheat and barley have been cultivated in Teneriffe from the remotest times: but rye, maize, ticks, and potatoes,

* From *vitrum*, glass; being used in that manufacture.

have been introduced more recently, and in succession. Only 30 or 40 years have passed since potatoes were first planted there, though at present they constitute almost the chief food of the inhabitants. With respect to the rotation of crops, and the change of seed, the people shew extreme ignorance or neglect. Some attention is directed to irrigation, so necessary in hot climates. Wheat and barley are sown in November and December, and usually reaped in April or May. The corn is carelessly raked together, and carried home in sacks on the backs of asses, mules, or camels. It is then trodden out by cattle, and the grain is separated from the chaff by exposing it to the wind. Sometimes (though rarely) swarms of a large sort of locust or grasshopper, called in Spanish *langosta*, come from Barbary, and will spread instant devastation among the fields of corn. The peasantry, armed with sticks and besoms, kill them, or chase them away: but they deposite their eggs, and therefore the young locusts in the year following are collected and burnt.

The lands are not rented in the Canaries. The landlord furnishes the seed and implements of husbandry, and receives one half of the produce, besides a certain quantity of wheat for each head of cattle which he lends to the tenant. Bread is eaten only by the richer inhabitants. The bulk of the people live much on *gofio;* which is only parched grain ground by a little hand-mill, of which every cottage possesses one. The Canarian carries to the field his *gofio* in a bag; and, as hunger prompts, he rolls it into little balls with water, and makes his miserable meal. Those who aspire to better fare eat salt fish and potatoes. The poor inhabitants of Palma and Gomere are sometimes reduced to the necessity of making cakes of the roots of the *pteris aquilina*, or male fern, which they dig in the mountains. Lupines are a choice food for cattle, but they are previously soaked in water, and boiled with the addition of salt.

A large quantity of wine is exported from Teneriffe, yet the vineyards are not managed with either skill or attention. The press consists of a long beam or lever, to the extremity of which a heavy stone can be attached by means of a screw. The farmers, however, well understand the mode of clarifying their wines, and fortifying them with brandy

Memoir on the Abuses in the clearing of Lands. By the Same.—Cultivation has within these forty years vastly extended its domains in France. It was promoted partly by the rising price of grain, and partly by the allurement of certain exemptions granted by the government. Much inconvenience, however, has arisen from the indiscreet extension of tillage. Woods have been wantonly destroyed, and the scarcity of fuel

begins to be severely felt. Besides, in proportion as the country is denuded, it is more exposed to the blighting effects of cold winds. Pasturage, too, in many cases, would in the end be more profitable than tillage; and M. TESSIER is of opinion that it would be more adviseable, on the whole, for the people of France to improve the fields already under cultivation, than to turn their industry to the clearing of fresh lands.

Means of increasing the Production of Corn on the Soil of the French Republic, by the penning of Sheep and the Suppression of fallow Grounds. By M. DAUBENTON.—The penning of sheep is earnestly recommended as the best way of manuring the land. In ordinary cases, the urine is lost and the force of the dung is diminished by being mixed with litter. The fact seems to be ascertained by a number of experiments.—The practice of allowing exhausted land to rest is completely barbarous: but no classes of men are more averse from innovations than farmers.

Plan of the Experiments which are made in the Botanic Garden, on Sheep and other domestic Animals. By the same.—These experiments relate chiefly to the sorts of food proper for animals, and the utility of pasturing sheep within inclosures.

Memoir on the Effects of the Cold of Ventose, fourth Year, (February and March 1796,) on different Vegetables, particularly on the Pear Tree. By CHARLES LOUIS L'HERITIER.—It will suffice for us to mention the title of this article.

Experiments made by Order of Government on the Navigation of the Seine. By M. FORFAIT, *associated Member.*—The scarcity which prevailed in France, during the year 1794, called forth exertions which have in the issue been productive of national benefit. One of the primary concerns of the government was to supply the metropolis with provisions. It was proposed to open the navigation of the Seine; and for that object, a lugger was built, of a peculiar construction, displaying much ingenuity and mechanical contrivance. It actually performed the voyage, and ascertained the practicability of rendering the river navigable by ships of considerable burthen. The expence is estimated at less than 200,000l. A chart is given of the course of the Seine from Rouen to Paris, marking the cuts projected, &c.

SURGERY, ANATOMY, *and* MEDICINE.

On the morbific Prolongation of the Tongue out of the Mouth. By PIERRE LASSUS.—This loathsome, though fortunately uncommon disorder appears in infants at their birth, or soon afterward. The tongue gradually protrudes out of the mouth,

grows

grows tumid, and by its weight draws along with it the *os hyoïdes*, and the upper part of the larynx; deglutition becomes difficult, and the saliva flows continually; the lower lip drops and swells: the tongue, rubbing against the teeth, becomes excoriated, and at ast hangs constantly out of the head, resting on the chin. The exsection of part of the tongue has been sometimes tried: but M. LASSUS disapproves that cruel and dangerous operation. He shews from his own practice, that the disease (at least in its first stage) admits of a simple and radical cure. The whole consists in stimulating the action of the tongue, and confining its unnatural growth. The application of a bandage to the tongue, and of a sort of bridle about the head to support the under jaw, are the chief remedies: but stimulating or emollient lotions may be likewise used; and the tongue may be rubbed with an irritating powder composed of pepper, ginger, mustard, and salt.

On a particular Method of studying Anatomy, employed, as an Essay, in Researches on the Teeth and Jaw-bones. By M. TENON.

Second Study, by Epochs, of the Grinders of the Horse. By the Same.—One of the most promising methods of pursuing the laborious study of anatomy is by observing the successive developement of the parts, and the periodic changes which take place in the animal frame. M. TENON has applied this ingenious idea to the veterinary art; and he has discovered some curious facts in the structure and growth of the teeth, and detected several errors of his predecessors. We must refer, however, to the memoirs themselves for the ample instruction which they convey. – The descriptions are illustrated by a number of correct engravings.

Inquiries into the Human Cranium. By the Same.—These remarks relate to the growth and decrease of the skull at different periods of life.

Observation on an Operation of the Trepan on the Femur. By the Same.—This is related as the first instance of the trepan being applied, and with success, to the thigh-bone, in a case which had been neglected or badly treated for some years. M. TENON blames too great precipitation in stemming the flow of blood after amputation.

Memoir on the Locked Jaw. By M. SABATIER.—Opium, administered in large doses, seems to afford the only chance of cure in this case.

Observation on the spontaneous Separation of two Bones, the Tibia, and Perone or Fibula, in their middle, in consequence of a Sphacele. By M. DESESSARTZ.—This singular case is related with much diffusion.

Memoir

Memoir on the Advantage and the Necessity of letting only little Blood at a Time from Children with a large Head. By the Same.—This aphorism is stated as the result of more than forty years' experience.

Memoir and Observations on the Small-Pox, and on the Complication of that Disease with Scarlet Fever, Miliary Eruptions, and other Depravations of the Humours. By the Same.—Such circumstantial and tedious relations of medical cases, which seem to lead to no general conclusions, can interest but very few readers.

Observation on a simple Idiopathic Atrophy; that is, what has not been preceded by any primitive or anterior Disease, and has not been accompanied by any accident or any foreign Symptom. By M. HALLÉ.—This is the very singular case of a young woman, who died at the age of twenty-five. The symptoms of the disease are accurately described, with the appearances exhibited on the dissection of the body. The disorder seems to bear some resemblance to the *atrophia cachexia* of Cullen, the *atrophia nervosa* of Sauvages, and the *phthisis nervosa* of Morton; yet it differs essentially from the characters given by those authors, and seems to form a new genus in the nosology.

Les.

The pressure of other engagements obliges us to defer our notice of the volume respecting the *Moral and Political Sciences;* which we regret the more, because we have received three additional volumes of these Memoirs, divided and classed in the same manner as the former. The Society proceed with such perseverance and rapidity, that we follow them *haud passibus æquis:* but, in our next Appendix, we shall make another effort to overtake them.

ART. II. *Imitation en Vers François, &c.* i. e. Imitation of the Odes of Anacreon in French Verse; followed by Poems on several Occasions. A new Edition. By S. P. MERARD-SAINT-JUST. 12mo. pp. 283. Paris, 1799. Imported by De Boffe, London; Price 2s.

IF love and wine should require any other recommendation than their own attractions, the Erotic and Bacchanalian songs of old Anacreon are, perhaps, the most delicate stimulants to the pagan piety of their youthful votaries. The present work is a version of the odes of this celebrated Greek bard; though the author modestly calls it an *imitation*. For this humility he assigns reasons, in a preliminary discourse of some length, prefixed to the first edition in 1768, from which we shall extract a few passages.

'A complete translation of a poem in French verse, which shall resemble the effect of a mirror, by reflecting feature for feature of the countenance which presents itself before it: that is to say, a translation

tion so scrupulously faithful as to give for every word of the original a corresponding word of the French language; for every beauty a similar beauty; and the harmony of each verse equally harmoniously:—an attempt at such a translation would only produce a conflict in which the translator, whoever he be, must always be vanquished. If he were equally possessed of the genius of the two languages, imitating the beauties of *Corneille*, *Racine*, *Boileau*, *La Fontaine*, *Voltaire*, and the Abbé *Delille*, French poets who have been most successful in writing verse, and enriching its idiom; he would still fail in such an undertaking, since there is great reason for believing that his version would be insupportable.

'After such an assertion, to intitle this little volume a *Translation* of *Anacreon* would be deceiving the public. I would sooner confess that the labours of my predecessors, and my own, are scarcely *imitations* of the songs or hymns of the poet of Teos.

'I make this confession without any proud reservation, or foolish vanity: but, as an imitative translator, I am still persuaded that my performance, however remote it may be from the original, approaches it somewhat nearer than any of the pretended translations, in verse, of Anacreon. This imitation, and those of my rivals, are, it must be owned, only insipid and colourless prints, which give but a very faint idea of the picture which has been copied. What engraver will dare to think that his *burin* can furnish all the magic effects of colouring produced by the pencils of a Coreggio, a Titian, or a Rubens?

'I expect to be asked why I print?—my answer is simple: it is because I am certain that those places of my imitations which fall short of the grace or energy of the Greek expression, which deaden their brilliancy and enfeeble their harmony, can only be perceived by true HELLENISTS, and those are not very numerous. They only know truly the taste, genius, force, and different shades in the language of Anacreon; and they alone who can detect my faults will pass them over, if they be judiciously learned, and will be most indulgent from knowing the extreme difficulty of doing better.

'If I have the female sex on my side,—especially those who are endowed with a delicate and refined taste, and who peculiarly patronize elegance, and works flowing from the heart, embellished by imagination,—I shall think my success complete. If such shall ever deign to read my verses with some degree of pleasure, as French songs, it will be doubtless from finding in them expression of sentiment, taste, correct facility, happy choice of refined but natural thoughts, and pleasing images, free from affectation; in short, the genius of the Greek poet who sang Venus, the Graces, and the Orgies of Bacchus.'

The translator also informs us that he has cultivated poetry, *con amore*, all his life; and that he has polished his verses, with respect to diction and rhyme, as much as possible. He expresses his ideas of versification, in lines of which the following is the import:

'A perfect verse which favour high has gain'd,
By all recited and by all retain'd,

Of

Of gold most pure, in earth or water found,
Must have the weight, the standard, and the sound.
The standard is the style, the weight the thought,
A piece ill-*sounding* to disgrace is brought.
Of these *criteria*, if but one should fail,
The rest with critics true will nought avail.'

It must be owned that, however the rest of Europe may dislike the French *airs tendres*, and their serious vocal music, their *chansons à table* are often replete with wit and humour; and perhaps no nation in Europe can boast of more variety of conception in the words of their comic and social songs. Even the tunes or melodies of some of them are not without merit, when played on instruments, or sung by the natives of any other country. These, however, were chiefly produced under the antient government, in times of good-humour and joviality. The revolution has hitherto given a ferocious turn to their *vaudevilles*, their street-songs; which are now all filled with "treasons, stratagems, and spoils," breathing vengeance, blood, and desolation.

'The songs of Anacreon (as this writer observes) are effusions of careless gaiety, amiable and graceful playfulness, melodious softness, and native Attic salt; not always requiring profundity of thought, yet always embellished with grace and elegance, void of affectation or false ornaments, and free from all appearance of labour: like the verdure of the fields, which refreshes the eyes, without fatiguing the sight.'

The rest of the preface is composed of obvious reflections, and repetitions of the same thoughts in different words: ideas in characterizing the poet, which every editor, every translator, every learned nation, has entertained both in antient and modern times.

The motto to this version is given in a quatrain by the translator himself:

'*Horace autrefois nous l' a dit;*
Ses preceptes ne sont frivoles;
TRADUISEZ-VOUS EN VERS? TRADUISEZ PLUS L'ESPRIT
DU POÊTE, QUE SES PAROLES.'

We learn from Horace, whose award is law,
Which flows from judgment and a taste refin'd;
If poesy from foreign fount we draw,
Translate not words, transfuse the poet's mind.

It is perhaps necessary that the poetry of a foreign language, either living or dead, should be superior to our own, in order to please us equally; so much being lost in the shade of words, and in our not feeling the whole extent of their significations. In perusing these Imitations of the Odes of Anacreon, they seem

seem to us inferior even to Fawkes's translation, and to that of John Addison. The translations and imitations of particular odes in English, which have been set to music, and sung in our public gardens, are greatly superior to those of general translations. The first and the best version of this poet was that of Henry Stephens, in Latin. The Italians have many translations of Anacreon; among which those of *Regnier*, *Desmarais*, and *Salvini* are the best.—We cannot wholly approve the present imitator's change of measure in each ode. There is an *allure*, or musical pace, in the original and in the translations, to which our ears have been accustomed; and the absence of which renders the present version less *Anacreontic* than those of its predecessors.

After the LXIV Odes of Anacreon, this little volume presents us with poems on several occasions; which clearly prove that this French writer succeeds better as a translator, or *mimic*, than as an original author. His ideas are not so delicate as those of the Teian *Sage*, on the subject of love and gallantry. —'Why (says he,) has Greece given to Anacreon the epithet of *Sage?* Because, in order to live like him, the violent passions must be subdued, and the mind tempered in such a manner as to defy the vicissitudes and storms of life; it must be elevated above the gripe of avarice, and the flights of ambition: these are acquirements which it is more difficult to attain, than to compose moral maxims, or treatises on rhetoric.' There is some truth in this remark, and with it we shall take our leave of this publication; candidly owning that, notwithstanding its defects, it has afforded us amusement.

Dr B...y.

ART. III. *Eloge de Montaigne;* i. e. The Eulogy on *Michael de Montaigne.* By HENRIETTA BOURDIC-VIOT. Small 12mo. pp. 105. Paris, 1799. Imported by De Boffe, London; Price 1s. 6d.

FEW writers in modern languages have been more read, quoted, and celebrated, than *Montaigne;* who was born in 1533, and died in 1592. The eulogy before us contains not many biographical anecdotes of him; and indeed the chief traits of his education, of his singularities, and of his character, are so well known, that to most readers it would be useless to detail them. Who has not read or heard of his being taught Latin in his infancy, as other children are taught their native tongue;—that, like the disciples of Pythagoras, he was awakened in the morning by soft music; or that, though he lived and died a nominal Roman catholic, he was naturally given to doubt in religious matters, as well as in other things? He was one of the first who disputed the Aristotelian doctrines, in metaphysics. His essays are written with such sincerity, that

that they may be called his *Confessions*. He took nothing on trust, but examined with his own eyes and ears, and decided with caution. He advises us to doubt, where truth lies hidden; to put no faith in our senses, nor in the imagination; and to beware of the illusions of eloquence. He was more a moral philosopher than a man of science; and he thought, with Socrates, that "the most useful knowlege for mankind is man."

The change of customs, manners, and principles, during the latter end of the eighteenth century, appears in few things more manifest, than in the circumstance that *Montaigne*, who has often been accused of scepticism, and who was not remarkable for delicacy in speaking of the sexes, should be honored by a *female eulogist;* who tells us that 'it was in the works of *Montaigne* that she acquired the knowlege of her duties; and that from his history she caught that enthusiasm which renders mortals capable of every enterprise, since it conceals from them the immense interval which separates them from their model.'—'I shall speak, therefore, (she adds) of his works and his virtues: may I, in presenting him under this double point of view, force his detractors to subscribe to his apology, and my judges to applaud my efforts.'*

In the course of the eulogy, the writer, addressing herself to the directors of the Institute, exclaims: 'O ye, to whom the nation has confided the formation of good citizens, read again and again the chapter in which *Montaigne* enjoins you to augment as much as possible the bodily strength of your pupils, which has an influence on the mind; to occupy them less with the words than the sense of authors; to perfect their judgment, by accustoming them to think and judge of the thoughts of others; to fortify, by examples, the happy disposition which they owe to nature; and to guard them against superstition, which is the infirmity of feeble minds.'

Instead of making man a machine, (like *Descartes,*) *Montaigne* gives to other animals an intelligence like our own, differing in degree, but not in kind. In this opinion, Bolingbroke has followed him; and Pope in many others. *Montaigne* could not reconcile to himself the notion 'that the beaver, which gave to us the first lessons in architecture; the republic of bees, which affords the wisest examples of police; the ants, whose œconomy and foresight we cannot too closely imitate; are pure automatons;—any more than the dog, a domestic animal, which may be regarded as the model of fidelity and gratitude, who studies his master's looks to anticipate his wishes, and who solicits his caresses as the sole reward of his attachment.'

* This éloge was read at the National Institute.

ment.' Men improve each other by reciprocally communicating their reflections, as a country is enriched by the importation of foreign merchandice. 'The elegance, (our author observes) which we have affected during the last century, has been the death of energy: the file which polishes metal diminishes its weight.'

In the second part of this eulogy, the fair writer paints the manners of her philosophical hero, and his goodness of heart. 'What charms embellished his conversation! what tenderness shone in his affections! He is so absorbed in the delights of meditating and performing benevolent actions, that he seems to form an atmosphere of happiness around him, which penetrates and envelopes whatever is within its vortex.'

'Of all the virtues of private life, the first is filial piety; it is that which nature has engraved on the heart of man.' No one ever carried this primitive virtue, the basis of social order, farther than *Montaigne;* who constantly wore, when on horseback, a cloak which had belonged to his father: not for convenience, nor for œconomy, but for delight; "I seemed (he says) to be wrapt up in my father."—Speaking of the delicacy due to women, he remarked, "we must take care not to awaken malignity, which is ever on the watch to fasten on females."—In friendship he was quite romantic. Many instances are adduced of his amicitial enthusiasm, which we have not room to extract.

This panegyric is neither free from enthusiasm, nor devoid of eloquence, particularly in the first part. The whole is an apology for the venerable Seigneur *de Montaigne*'s doctrines and singularities; which is made so effectually, as nearly to create an interest in every thing that concerns him, which we remember not to have felt before. His philosophy was rather Epicurean than Cynical. He does not seem to have been very serious in his belief of the mysteries of religion: but his morality was inviting, and his life was innocent. His language, for the time when he wrote, was neither elegant nor correct: but it was intelligible, and often so forcible and original as to bid defiance to translation.

As, however, the praises of this eulogist may need some qualification, we shall insert Dr. Johnson's character of this singular writer; who blushed no more at his own follies, and deviations from the established forms of society, than a negro at his nakedness.

"That *Montaigne* abounds in native wit, in quick penetration, in perfect knowlege of the human heart, and the various vanities and vices that lurk in it, cannot justly be denied. But a man who undertakes to transmit his thoughts on life and manners to posterity, with the hopes of entertaining and amending future ages, must be either exceedingly

exceedingly vain or exceedingly careless, if he expects either of these effects can be produced by wanton sallies of the imagination, by useless and impertinent digressions, by never forming or following any regular plan, never classing or confining his thoughts, never changing or rejecting any sentiment that occurs to him. Yet this appears to have been the conduct of our celebrated essayist; and it has produced many awkward imitators, who, under the notion of writing with the fire and freedom of this lively old Gascon, have fallen into confused rhapsodies and uninteresting egotisms.

"But these blemishes of *Montaigne* are trifling and unimportant, compared with his vanity, his indecency, and his scepticism. That man must totally have suppressed the natural love of honest reputation, which is so powerfully felt by the truly wise and good, who can calmly sit down to give a catalogue of his private vices, publish his most secret infirmities, with the pretence of exhibiting a faithful picture of himself, and of exactly pourtraying the minutest features of his mind. Surely he deserves the censure Quintilian bestows on Demetrius, a celebrated Grecian statuary, that he was *nimius in veritate, et similitudinis quam pulchritudinis amantior;* "more studious of likeness than of beauty."—ADVENTURER, No. 49."

Dr B....y.

ART. IV. *Leitfaden zur Geschichte der Gelehrsamkeit, &c. i e.* A Guide to the History of Literature. By JOHN GEORGE MEUSEL. 2 Vols. 8vo. Leipsic. 1799.

WE have not for a long time met with a more useful work than this. The sources of knowlege are become so copious, and learning has assumed such a variety of shapes, that it requires a great portion of our time to *learn* even what it is that *may be learned;* and whence we are to obtain the details of each particular branch of universal science. This circumstance produced a new species of historical writing, called *Bibliography;* and the works on that subject only would fill a considerable library. Most of them, however, gave rather the history of the learned, than the history of learning. In some of them, indeed, the authors were arranged in a chronological order: but still it was the history of men of letters, rather than that of literature; and the gradual progress of learning was seldom traced. Some few exceptions are to be found, with respect to particular nations; of which the *Letteratura Italiana* of *Tiraboschi* is an admirable instance; and on this work M. MEUSEL seems to have formed his more general plan.

M. MEUSEL's first volume opens with a large introduction of 216 pages; in which, after an accurate definition of *literature*, he gives a well-distributed notice of the works which are necessary to be consulted in writing a good history of this subject.

These works are divided into two classes. I. Those which treat in general of the whole history of literature; and, II. Those which treat on particular portions of it. The first class is not very numerous; containing, in our author's list, not more than thirty works; namely, *Lambecius—Prodromus historiæ litterariæ*, with *Fabricius*'s preface, published at Leipsic in 1710.—*Morhofius—Polyhistor litterarius:* best edit. that of *Schawb* in 1747, two vols. in quarto.—*Struvius—Introductio in notitiam rei litterariæ;* a work re-modelled by *Jugler*, and published in 1754, in 3 vols. 8vo. A supplement was given by *Koecher* in 1785 in an 8vo. volume.—*Heumann—Conspectus reipublicæ litterariæ;* of which a new edition is now in the press. *Heumann*'s work was translated into German by *Gundlings*, with necessary remarks, a double index, and a preface by *Knappens*. It was published at Leipsic in 1736; and is an useful work, says the present author, for those *qui nasum habent.* —*Le Gendre—Mémoires pour servir à l'histoire de l'esprit humain.* Paris 1741, 7 vols. 12mo.—*Stollens—Anmerkungen über Heumann's Conspectum, &c.* Jena 1738, 8vo.—*Bouginé—Handbuch der allgemeinen litterargeschichte;* Zurich 1792, 8vo.—*De Claranças—Essais sur l'histoire des sciences, des belles lettres, et des arts;* best edit. Paris 1757, 4 vols. 8vo.—*Albertini—Historie der Gelahrkeit vom Anfang der welt bis auf die sieben Weisen in Griechenland,* 1751, 8vo.—*J. Andrew Fabricius—Abriss einer allgemeinen historie der Gelehrsamkeit,* 3 vols. 8vo. 1755.—*Goguet's* well-known work, *De l'origine des loix, des arts, et des sciences, et de leur progrès chez les anciens peuples;* best edit. that of Paris 1758, 3 vols. in 4to.—*Denina—Discorso sopra le vicende della letteratura;* best edit. Glasgow 1763. It has been translated into almost all European languages.—*Baumann—Kurzer Entwurf einer historie der Gelehrsamkeit, &c.* Brandenburg 1762, 8vo. This was meant for the use of schools.—*Bertram—Entwurf einer Geschichte der Gelahkreit.* Only a first part was published, at Halle, 1764.—*Rambach—Versuch einer pragmatischen Litteraire historie,* 8vo. Halle, 1764.—*Michael Denis—Einleitung in die Bücherkunde;* best edit. that of Vienna 1796, 2 vols. in 4to.—*Reinhard—Einleitung zu einer allgemeinen Geschichte der Gelehrsamkeit;* 4to. Erlangen, 1779.—*Mertens—Hodegetischer Entwurf einer vollständigen Geschichte der Gelehrsamkeit;* Augsburg 1780, 8vo.—*Will—Entwurf einer vollständigen litteratur-geschichte;* 3 vols. 8vo. Nürenburg 1784.—*Andres—Dell origine, progressi, e stato attuale d'ogni Letteratura;* 2 vols. 4to. Parma 1787.—*Wald—Versuch einer Einleitung in die Geschichte der Kentnisse, Wissenschaften, und shönen Kunste;* best edit. Halle 1786, large 8vo. The same author gave, in the next year, *Uebersicht der allgemeinen Litteratur-und-Kunst-geschichte,*

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bis zu Luther's Reformation; Halle 1786, 8vo.—*Cournand—Tableau des Révolutions de la Litterature ancienne et moderne;* 8vo. Paris 1786. *Günther-Wàhl—Versuch einer allgemeinen Geschichte der Litteratur, &c.* Erfurt 1788, large 8vo.—*Dahler—Handbuch zum Gebrauch bey Vorlesungen über die Geschichte der Litteratur und der Kunst;* large 8vo. Jena 1788.—*James Oberlein—Litterarum omnis ævi fata, tabulis synopticis exposita.* This work was printed at Strasburg in 1789, on ten copper-plates.—*Ludwig Wachler—Versuch einer allegemeinen Geschichte der Litteratur;* large 8vo. Lemgo 1796. An useful school-book.—*Gaab—Entwurf zu seinen Vorlesungen über die Litteratur-geschichte;* 8vo. Tubingen 1794.

These are all the works which M. MEUSEL ranks in his *first* class. The number in the *second* Class is great indeed, and they are classified in the following manner.

First; those which comprehend only a certain space of time: among which we find Bannister's *View of the arts and sciences, from the earliest times to the age of Alexander the Great: - Plessing's Historical and Philosophical Essays on the Manner of Thinking, the Theology, and the Philosophy, of the Antients; particularly of the Greeks, to the age of Aristotle.* This work is in German. -*De Juvigny—Decadence des Lettres et des Mœurs, depuis les Grecs et les Romains jusqu'à nos jours;* 8vo. Paris 1787.—*Meiners—Historical comparison of the usages, laws, religion, science, and learning of the middle ages, &c.* in German, 3 vols. 8vo. Hanover 1794.—*A general History of the Literature of modern Europe;* by *Joh. Gottfried Eichhorn;* large 8vo. in German; printed at Göttingen in 1796.

Secondly; works which treat on particular sciences. These are subdivided in the following order.—1. On *Philology*, general and particular—2. On *History*—3 A. *Mathematics*—3 B. *Tactics*—4. *Philosophy*—5. A. *Poesy*—5 B. *Oratory*—6. *Statistics*—7. *Physics or Natural History*, divided into two classes, *General* and *Particular;* —8. *Medicine*—9. *Jurisprudence.*—10. *Divinity.*—The author's catalogue of such writers amounts to above four hundred.

Thirdly; a catalogue of those who have laboured on the same subject, according to countries, or nations; namely, of the *Babylonians, Egyptians,* the *Orientalists* in general, *Phœnicians, Arabians, Æthiopians, Chinese, Greeks and Romans, Greeks only, Romans only, Italians, Germans, French, English, Danes, Icelanders, Poles, Prussians, Hungarians, Bohemians* and *Moravians, Turks, Numidians.*—The works of somewhat more than forty authors are mentioned in this class.

Fourthly, come *Biographical* works, such as *lexicons, libraries,* &c. and these are *general*, or *particular*; some *chronological*,

others *national*; and others restricted to certain *arts and sciences*. M. MEUSEL's catalogue of these comprises more than 600: besides more than 400 periodical *Journals* and *Reviews*, ranked nationally; of which 153 are general: not including those *Journals*, *Mercuries*, and *Intelligencers*, which announce small fugitive pieces, rare books, collections called *anas*, and printed catalogues of various libraries, both public and private.

M. MEUSEL's introduction concludes with a *general view of the sciences and their divisions*; in ten classes: *Philology*, *History*, *Mathematics*, *Philosophy*, *the Fine Arts*, *Politics*, *Natural History*, *Medicine*, *Jurisprudence*, and *Theology*. The classification is minute, and systematical.

We now come to the work itself, which is divided into six sections; corresponding with so many periods of time, or the different ages of literature.

Sec. 1. From Moses to Alexander the Great; comprehending a period of 1198 years.

Sec. 2. From Alexander to the death of Cæsar Augustus; 305 years.

Sect. 3. From the death of Augustus to the irruption of the Goths into Italy; 396 years.

Sect. 4. From the irruption of the Goths, to the Crusades; 700 years.

Sect. 5. From the Crusades to the revival of letters; 400 years.

Sec. 6. From the revival of letters to the present time; 300 years.

In each of these periods, the author considers—the general state of the sciences, and their culture,—the encouragers and patrons of science,—the learned men who then flourished, and in particular those who formed an epoch in the annals of literature,—the most remarkable schools, and societies of learned men,—the principal libraries,—the fate and fortunes of particular sciences, and those by whom they were influenced.

Such is the method of M. MEUSEL; which he has uniformly followed, and which places in a luminous point of view the subject on which he treats, as every intelligent reader will conclude from this bare enumeration. We now proceed to give a very brief analysis of each particular period.

1st SECTION, or PERIOD. *From Moses to Alexander the Great.*

Before this period, all learning was oral, transmitted from father to son in tales and songs; and systematical knowlege had yet no existence. Chaldæa, Egypt, and Palestine, were the first seats of learning, which was chiefly in the hands of the priests. In the course of this period, however, the sciences made

made a considerable progress, not only in Asia, but in Africa and Europe.

Among the *Promoters of Learning*, M. MEUSEL places Samuel, David, and Solomon, in Judæa; Pisistratus and Pericles, at Athens; Crœsus, king of Lydia; and the Roman king, Numa Pompilius.

The *Persons whose example and writings had the greatest influence on the state of letters* were Moses, Taaut or Thoth, Zerdusht, (commonly called Zoroaster,) Thales, and Pythagoras.

Seats of Learning were, in Egypt, at Memphis, Heliopolis, and Thebes.—At Babylon, an astronomical school, and a literary society, were formed by Belus.—Samuel seems to have had a school of poets and musicians in Palestine; and from that age, various academies were founded in the Jewish nation.—The Greeks had schools at Athens, Smyrna, Phocæa, and Chios.—Pythagoras founded schools in Italy.

The *most Antient Library*, which history mentions, is that of Osymanduas, at Memphis. Pisistratus was the first who formed a public library at Athens:—but the most renowned was that of Polycrates, in the isle of Samos.

With respect to *Philological Learning;* the Hebrew language, first cultivated by Moses, and brought to its golden age under David and Solomon, gave place after the Babylonish captivity to the Chaldee; which, as well as the Aramæan or Syriac, is only a different dialect. To the same general class belong the Phœnician, the Arabic, and the Ethiopic.—The language of Egypt was twofold: that of Upper Egypt, or the Sahidic, and that of Lower Egypt, or the Coptic.—The Greek, which probably sprang from the Phœnician, was so enriched and refined by Orpheus, Homer, and other writers, as to become the first of tongues, and the foundation of the Latin and most other European languages.—The learned throughout this period all wrote in their mother-tongue, according to the best speakers. Grammar and criticism were yet unknown.

State of Historical Science. The first histories were poetical tales, often blended with fable, and clothed in allegory. Moses is reckoned the most antient writer whose works are now extant. He had a succession of Hebrew writers down to the captivity.—The Egyptian history was composed in hieroglyphics, only known to the priests. The Phœnicians had early historians, as appears from Herodotus: but only the name of Sanchoniathon is known to us.—The Greek historians, during this period, were the most notable; Herodotus, Thucydides, Xenophon, and Ctesias. The Olympic games served to fix their chronology.—The Periplus of Hanno belongs also to this period. It

was written in Punic, but was translated into Greek, in the author's life-time.

The first *Mathematical Knowlege* was limited to astronomy, geometry, and arithmetic. Astronomy was first cultivated by the Chaldæans. Egypt was the birth-place of geometry. Naval architecture, if not invented, was improved by the Phœnicians. From Egypt and Chaldæa, the Greeks borrowed the first principles of those sciences which were cultivated by Thales, Pythagoras, Anaximander, Anaxagoras, Euphorbus, Plato, and his scholars.

What we now call *Philosophy* was, in early times, among all nations, an absurd mixture of a few just observations with numerous errors, groundless suppositions, and false conclusions. To call the wisdom of the Hebrews *Philosophy* is an abuse of words; and that of the Chaldees, Persians, and other eastern nations, was no more deserving of the name. Of the philosophy of the Indian Gymnosophists and Brachmans, we know too little to form a competent idea of it. The boasted high philosophy of the Chinese has of late been reasonably doubted. It is therefore among the Greeks that we are to look for philosophical knowlege, in this period.—The first philosophy in Greece was a wild mythology, sometimes *religious*, sometimes *moral*, and sometimes *political*. Such it is to be found in the *Orphics*, and in Homer and Hesiod. The Gnomists followed; commonly called the Seven Wise Men of Greece. Thales, the founder of the Ionic philosophy, was born 600 years before Christ. His scholars and successors were Anaximander, Anaximenes, Pherecides, Hermotimus, Diogenes of Apollonia, and Archelaus of Athens.—The founder of the Italic school was Pythagoras; and his most renowned followers were Empedocles, Alcmaon, Timæus, Ocellus Lucanus, Epicharmus, Theages, Archytas, Philolaus, and Eudoxus.—The Eleatic school, so called from Elea in Magna Græcia, was founded by Xenophanes; contemporary with Pythagoras. His principal followers were Parmenides, Melissus, and Zeno.—Heraclitus, although a disciple of the same school, was in some degree the founder of a new sect; and his contemporary Leucippus was the father of the atomic philosophy, improved by Democritus. His most celebrated scholars were Protagoras of Abdera, Diagoras of Melos, and Anaxarchus.

The Greek philosophy was now about to undergo a great revolution. *De cælo descendit γνωθι σεαυτον*; and Socrates was the mortal commissioned to make it known on earth. It is true that he himself wrote nothing: but his disciples were careful to collect all his sayings, and to transmit them to poste-

rity in the most enchanting dress. These were Xenophon and Plato. Æschines, Cebes, and Crito were also Socratists.—After the death of Socrates, his followers were divided into five different schools. 1. The Cyrenaic founded by Aristippus. 2. The Eretrian, by Phædo. 3. The Megaric, by Euclid. 4. The Cynic, by Antisthenes. 5. The Platonic, by Plato; called after his death the Academic School.

The State of the Fine Arts and Sciences, and first of *Poesy*. Moses is the oldest poet, as well as the most antient historian. Besides some historical fragments which he quotes, we have three odes or songs of his own composition. The reigns of David and Solomon were the poetic age of the Jews. They had, however, neither drama nor epopœa, unless the book of Job may come under the latter denomination.

The poetry of Greece is so old, that it is lost in remote antiquity. Orpheus, Musæus, and Linus, were antecedent to Homer:—but *he* is the true father of genuine poetry and taste, the poet of all ages and nations. The works of Homer were to the Greeks a book of elements, which was put into the hands of youth, and whence they drew knowlege of every kind. Not only posterior bards learned their art from this great master, but prose-writers, the historian, the philosopher, and the orator, had him continually in view. The statuary and the painter took their subjects from him; kings and generals made him their constant companion; and Homer was the darling of the world.

Contemporary with, or perhaps a little before Homer, was Hesiod; and after Homer and Hesiod we meet with the names of several lyric poets, as Archilochus, Alcman, Arion, Terpander, Alcæus, Sappho, Erinna, Stesichorus, Ibycus, Anacreon, Corinna, Lasus, Pindar, and Bacchylides:—of all whom, except Anacreon and Pindar, we have only fragments. The principal elegiac Greek poets, during this period, were Mimnermus of Colophon, Theognis of Megara, and Simonides. The dramatists were Thespis, Susarion, Æschylus, Sophocles, Euripides, in tragedy; and in comedy, Cratinus, Crates, Eupolis, and Aristophanes.

The orators of Greece, during this period, were Solon, Pisistratus, Themistocles, Alcibiades, Aspasia, and Pericles. The oratorical art was greatly improved by Isocrates, Andocides, Lysias, Isæus, Æschines, Hyperides, Donarchus, and above all by Demosthenes. The rhetors, Empedocles, Corax, and Tisias. The sophists, Protagoras, Gorgias, Hippias, Prodicus, Callias, Polus, and Thrasymachus.

Statistics. The author is here very short. He mentions only the political writings of Xenophon and Plato.

State of Physics, or Natural Philosophy. This is also a scanty article; and indeed there is not much to say on it.

State of Medical Science. From obvious causes, priests were generally the first physicians. The Egyptians are supposed to have been skilled in anatomy. They certainly knew the art of embalming to great perfection. Solomon was acquainted with the virtues of every herb that grows. Isaiah also seems to have had some experience in the healing art.—In Greece, the science was early cultivated, and greatly esteemed. Its father was said to be Esculapius: whose principal followers were Chiron, Alcmaon of Crotona, Empedocles, Iccus of Tarentum, Prodicus, and the *divine* Hippocrates: whose sons Thessalus and Draco succeeded to his medical knowlege.—Besides these, we find the names of Philistion, Callimachus, Petronius, Eudoxus, Chrisippus, and Praxagoras.

State of Jurisprudence. No written laws existed prior to those of Moses. Other legislators, since him, were Dejoces of Media, Minos of Crete, Phoronæus the Argolian, Pittacus of Lesbia, Cecrops, Draco and Solon of Athens, Lycurgus of Sparta; among the Persians, Zoroaster; among the Locrians, Zaleucus; and among the Romans, Numa.

State of Theology. Except the Hebrews, who had a particular religion and divinity under a singular national God, the rest of the world was plunged in polytheism blended with obscenity and superstition. Their theology, properly so called, may be seen in the authors already quoted under the article *Philosophy.*

2d Section, or Period. *From Alexander the Great to the Death of Augustus.*

Learning, during this period, made great progress under the Macedonian king Alexander, and under his successors; particularly the Ptolemies of Egypt. From Greece, learning was brought to Rome, where the sciences and fine arts were cultivated with ardor and success; until excessive luxury, and degrading servility, began to deteriorate the public taste; and at length, after the death of Augustus, entirely vitiated it.

The principal *Promoters of Learning*, during this period, were Alexander, the three Ptolemies, Eumenes II. king of Pergamus, Julius Cæsar, Mæcenas, and Augustus.

The *Individuals whose example had the greatest influence on Literature* were Aristotle, Eratosthenes, Varro, Cicero, and Julius Cæsar.

The Jews had *Schools* and *Synagogues* at Jerusalem, Alexandria, Babylon, and other places. The Chaldæans had schools at Babylon and Barsippe: the Persians at Balch and Susa: the Phœnicians at Tyre and Zidon, and perhaps at Carthage.—

In Egypt, the Musæum of Ptolemy Philadelphus was the most renowned.—In Greece, the Lycæum and the Stoa.—At Rome, the more antient grammar-schools were those of Spurius Carvilius and Crates Mallotes; the former contemporary with the first, the latter with the second Punic war.—The first school of rhetoric was founded by L. Plotius Gallus.

Of *Libraries*, that of Alexandria was the richest.—There was also a celebrated one at Susa, in Persia.—Also, the libraries of Pisistratus at Athens, and of Clearchus at Heraclea.—The first public library at Rome was founded by L. Æmilius Paulus: it was enriched by Lucullus from the spoils of Pontus: but the most celebrated was that of Augustus in the temple of Apollo Palatinus.

Philological Learning flourished chiefly at Alexandria. The principal grammarians of this period were Callimachus, Apollonius Rhodius, Aratus, Nicander, Zenodotus, Eratosthenes, Aristophanes of Byzantium, and, the most renowned of all, Aristarchus.

The chief *Historians* were, in Greek, Polybius, Dionysius of Halicarnassus, Diodorus Siculus; and, in Latin, Julius Cæsar, Hirtius, Sallust, Cornelius Nepos, and Livy.—The chief *Geographers* were Nearchus, Dicæarchus, Symnus, Agatharcides, Eratosthenes, Pytheas of Marseilles, Hipparchus of Nice, and Dionysius Periegetes.

The *Mathematics* were cultivated by the Platonists: but Euclid was the great master of this science. The most learned of his successors were Apollonius of Perga, Ktesibius, Hero, and Archimedes.—*Astronomers*, Aristarchus of Samos, Hipparchus of Nice, Geminus of Rhodes, Sosigenes of Alexandria.—The Roman mathematicians were Papirius, Scipio Nasica, C. Sulph. Gallus, and P. Nigidius Figulus, the particular friend of Cicero.—The most antient tactic writer, (who lived in this period, about 360 years before Christ,) was Æneas, surnamed Tacticus.

Philosophy, during this period, was by Aristotle carried to a degree of perfection which it had never yet attained. His principal scholars and followers in the Peripatetic school were Theophrastus, Strato, Aristoxenus, Dicæarchus, Demetrius Phalereus, Heraclides Ponticus.—The founder of the Stoic school was Zeno; whose principal followers were Cleanthes, Chrysippus, Dionysius of Babylon, Panætius of Rhodes, Posidonius of Apamea.—Epicurus was also the founder of a philosophic school. His doctrines were finely illustrated by Lucretius in his celebrated poem.—The system of scepticism had for its author Pyrrho of Elis, whose disciples were Timon, Æenesidemus, Numenius, Nausiphanes, and Sextus Empiricus.—In Italy,

Italy, philosophy made little progress before Lucullus: but it was cultivated, and highly cultivated, in all its branches, by Cicero, and by several of his contemporaries.

Of the *Fine Arts*, the first treatise on *Poetry* was written by Aristotle. Horace's epistle to the Pisos may also be called *poetics*. —As to poetry itself, it was still cultivated, but took a new turn in Greece. The *Argonautica* of Apollonius Rhodius, *Lycophron*, the *Phæomena* of Aratus, the *Theriaca* and *Alexipharmica* of Nicander, and the *Hymns* of Callimachus, are all of this period.—Pastoral poetry was brought to its highest perfection by Theocritus, Bion, and Moschus.—At Rome, dramatic poetry made its first appearance in this period. Its father was Livius Andronicus; succeeded by Nævius, Attius, and Pacuvius: but Plautus and Terence matured it; at least with respect to comedy: for Rome had yet produced no tragic poet.—In other species of poesy, however, the Latins excelled towards the end of this period. Lucretius, Catullus, Tibullus, Propertius, Virgil, Horace, Ovid, are all masterly writers in their various characters: but this was the golden age of Rome.

The first formal treatise on Rhetoric, as well as the first Art of Poetry, we owe to Aristotle. Of orators, we meet, in Greece, with the names of Demades, Hyperides, Dinarchus, and Demetrius Phalereus: at Rome, those of Cethegus, Cato, the Scipios, the Gracchi, Hortensius, Crassus, and Cæsar; and the master of eloquence, both in theory and practice, the immortal Tully.

The chief writers on *Statistics*, or *Politics*, in this period, are Aristotle, Cato, Varro, and Cicero.

On *Physics*, and *Natural History*, Aristotle, Theophrastus, Lucretius, Antigonus.

The *Medical Science*, during this period, was cultivated by the Peripatetic school with success, particularly by Theophrastus, the disciple of Aristotle; in Egypt, by Herophilus and Erasistratus; and at Rome, by Asclepiades.

As to the *State of Jurisprudence;* in the East, the king's will was a law.—In Greece, the Ætolic and Achaic union made laws at the time of their general assemblies:—but these were disregarded by Aristotle, who formed a new system of positive law, founded on the law of nature.—At Rome, the people had from the beginning the legislative power, but more in appearance than in reality; as the Senate, by means of the augurs, obtained whatever they wished.—The Laws of the twelve Tables were brought by the Decemvirs from Greece 448 years before Christ. Besides these, the Prætorial Edicts, and the Senatus-Consulta, were considered as statute law.—The most renowned jurists were Appius Cl. Cæcus, Cn. Fulvius, the Scævolae,

Scævolae, P. Cincius Alimentus, L. Ælius, Servius Sulpicius Rufus, C. Trebatius Testa, and Alfenus Varus.

Theology, during these days, was in a dismal state, even among the Jews; who were divided into three sects, the Pharisees, the Sadducees, and the Essenes. In this period, however, the canon of the Old Testament was completed; and the Greek version of the Bible called the Septuagint was made at Alexandria, in the reign of Ptol. Philadelphus.—The heathen world was divided between idolatry, superstition, and atheism.

M. Meusel not only marks the state of literature in all its branches, and gives the names of the writers who excelled in each, but he points out the best editions of their works, and the moderns who have commented on them, or vindicated their particular doctrines. For instance, speaking of Aristotle, he says: 'Sylburgius's edition of the Greek text of Aristotle, printed at Frankfort 1587, in five quarto volumes, is hitherto the best: but that, and the negligently executed edition of Du Val 1639-1655, four volumes in folio, will be surpassed by the edition of Buhle, begun to be printed at Deuxponts in 1791, and continued until 1793. The four volumes that have appeared contain a Literary Apparatus, the Organon, and Rhetoric.'—Among those who made strictures and observations on the works of Aristotle, the author mentions *Andr. Schotti—Vitæ Aristotelis et Demosthenis inter se comparatæ; Comparaison de Platon et d'Aristote* par *Rapin; Bayle*, in his Dictionary; *Francisci Patricii—Discussiones Peripateticæ; Petri Rami—Animadversiones Aristotelicæ; Petri Gassendi—Exercitationes adversus Aristotelem; Plessing—Ueber Aristoteles, u. Unterschum ueber die Platonischen Ideen; Aristotelis Vita per annos digesta, à J. G. Buhle;* in the first volume of the new edition.

The reader will now clearly perceive what a fund of information is contained in this work. An account of the second volume shall be given in a future Article.

[*To be continued.*]

Ged..s.

Art. V. *Année du Jardinage*, &c.; *i. e.* The Gardener's Year; a Work extracted from the best Authors, antient and modern, who have written on the Subject. By John-Francis Bastien. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 488 and 590. Paris, 1799. Imported by Dulau and Co. London. Price 12s. sewed.

Although we have long been conversant with books on gardening, in various languages, we confess that we have received both instruction and amusement from the perusal of the present work. Our English writers are more methodical and scientific, but they are often more dry and insipid than M. Bastien; who writes like a gentleman who has made horticulture

ticulture a hobby-horse of pleasure, and who communicates his practical knowlege in so unaffected and genteel a manner, that we never tire in his company. The design of the author, or *editor*, as he calls himself, will appear from his address to the public.

'Notwithstanding the great number of works that have been published on gardening, I thought that I might add this to the list; as being more clear, and (I trust) more instructive than those that have preceded it. Some enter into long and minute details of particular branches, and say little or nothing of others. Some, too scientific in their descriptions, are often incomprehensible to those who are not perfectly acquainted with botany. In this work, all the parts are equally the objects of attention, disengaged from encumbering details and scientific discussion; which, without profound study, would render them unintelligible.

'To quote the works which have been consulted would be only to give a long catalogue of names, a dry and useless nomenclature. It is enough to do justice, in general, to the light which I have borrowed, from *all* the writers whom I could find, towards the compilation of this work. The table of articles, which is prefixed to each of the volumes, and the general index at the end of the second, will in some degree enable the reader to judge of its utility. It is impossible, I think, to compress more matter in so small a compass.

'It would have been easy to enrich the work with plates relative to the subject: but this would have greatly increased the price, to little purpose. Every one knows the forms and figures of spades, hoes, hooks, ladders, pruning-knives, watering-pots, &c. &c. It would, perhaps, have been more essential to give representations of the manner of grafting and pruning: but even such figures signify little to those who have not a proper idea of the actual operations, which must be learnt from professional men.'

The first volume contains an alphabetical table of the *terms* of gardening, with their explication; and another of the different tools and instruments commonly used by the gardener. These two tables occupy nearly 60 pages.—M. BASTIEN then treats *on the situation, distribution, enclosure*, &c. of a garden;—the *method of levelling and working ground*;—of *sowing, transplanting*, and *gathering* various plants;—of *hot-beds* of different kinds and compositions; and in particular of mushroom-beds. Then the *economy* of a kitchen-garden, and the proper season for sowing all sorts of grain throughout the whole course of the year; with prognostics of the weather, drawn from the sun, the moon, the stars, the rain-bow, the clouds, thunder, &c. &c.—The writer next makes some general observations on the salubrity of the air, of the water, and of the medicinal qualities of a number of herbs, in alphabetical order; with the particular manner of cultivating them.—The raising of asparagus, cardoons, cauliflowers, straw-berries, and melons, forms

forms so many separate sections, well worth the perusal of the practical gardener. The volume concludes with a *gardener's calendar*, according to the new division of the French months; beginning with *Vendemaire*, and ending with *Fructidor*.

Vol. II. comprehends a large portion of matter, always useful, although not always methodically arranged. M. BASTIEN treats on *the vegetation of plants*, and the means of multiplying them; – of the *sap*, its nature, motion, and circulation;—of *leaves*, *flowers*, and *fruits*;—of the *cultivation* and *propagation* of fruit-trees, and of the most proper manner of disposing them in a garden; with an alphabetical catalogue of the best kinds, and the most judicious methods of raising them, and preserving them from the different maladies to which they are liable: particularly from the invasions of various insects and vermin, to which they are constantly exposed. A great number of good remarks are interspersed in this part of the work.

After having copiously treated on fruit-trees, the writer enters into a detail of flowers and flowering shrubs; points out, with great perspicuity, the manner of raising them, and of arranging them in parterres to the greatest advantage; and gives a descriptive alphabetical catalogue of the most rare and remarkable; with the method of treating them, and their medicinal uses. In this latter part, perhaps, the author trusts too much to the old *Materia Medica*; and he puts us in mind of our Culpepper's *English Physician*.—The volume concludes with a very useful alphabetical index to the whole work.

We shall offer a small specimen of this performance, by extracting a receipt for destroying the vermin which infest plants:

'Take of black soap two pounds and a half, flower of sulphur two pounds and a half, mushrooms of any kind two pounds, water 60 pints. Divide the water into two equal parts, and put one half in a barrel with the soap and the mushrooms, after having bruised them a little.—The other half of the water is to be boiled in a cauldron with the sulphur inclosed in a bag, and fixed to the bottom of the cauldron by a stone or other weight. During an ebullition of about 20 minutes, the bag of sulphur must be stirred about with a stick, the better to impregnate the water. By augmenting the quantity of ingredients, the effects will be more sensible.—The water, that has been thus boiled, must then be poured into the barrel, and daily stirred with a stick, until it acquires the highest degree of rankness: care being always taken to stop up the barrel after the water has been stirred.

'This composition is to be sprinkled, or injected on the plants infested; and it will, at the first injection, destroy the greater number of the insects: but it will require frequent repetitions to kill those which live under ground; especially the ants; to exterminate *them*, from two to eight pints of the liquor will be necessary, according to the extent

extent of their nests.—Two ounces of *nux vomica*, added to the above composition, and boiled together with the flower of sulphur, will render the *recipe* still more effectual; especially when ants are to be destroyed.'

We wish that this remedy may be tried by some of our experienced gardeners.

We should willingly give, as another and more satisfactory specimen, the author's method of cultivating the *melon*: but other matter presses on us, and admonishes us to refrain.

Ged..s

Art. VI. M. La Place's *Treatise on Celestial Mechanics.*

[*Article concluded.*]

According to the promise made in our last Appendix, (p. 479.) we now proceed to the consideration of the remainder of this highly important work, commencing with Book III. *on the Figure of the Heavenly Bodies.*—The figure of the heavenly bodies depends on the law of the gravity at their surface; and this gravity, being itself the result of the attractions of all their parts, depends on their figure. The law of gravitation at the surface of heavenly bodies, and their figure, have then a reciprocal connection, which renders the knowlege of the one necessary to the determination of the other. Their investigation is extremely difficult, and seems to require a peculiar analysis. If the planets were entirely solid, they might have any figure whatever: but if, like the earth, they are covered with a fluid, all the parts of this fluid must dispose themselves in such a manner that it may be in equilibrium; and the figure of the exterior surface depends on that of the solid part which it covers, and on the forces acting on it. It is in general supposed that all the heavenly bodies are covered with a fluid; and according to this hypothesis, which is true in respect to the earth, and which it appears natural to extend to the other bodies of the system, their figure, and the law of gravitation at their surface, are determined. The analysis used is a singular application of the calculus of partial differences; which, by simple **differentiations*, conducts to results much more extensive than can be obtained, with difficulty, by the method of integrations.

Chap. 1. *On the Attractions of homogeneal Spheroids terminated by Surfaces of the second Order.*

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* This is not an English word, nor have we one corresponding to it: it means the putting an equation or expression into fluxions.

To

To facilitate the integration of such expressions as

$$\iiint \frac{(a-x)\ dx.dy.dz}{\left\{(a-x)^2+(b-y)^2+(c-z)^2\right\}^{\frac{3}{2}}}$$

M. La Place gives a general method for transforming a triple differential, into another relative to three new variable quantities. He then applies this method to the attraction of spheroids, gives the formulas of attractions of homogeneal spheroids terminated by surfaces of the second order, determines the attractions of these spheroids on points situated within and without their surfaces, &c.

Chapter 2. *Developement into Series of the Attractions of any Spheroids whatever.*

Chapter 3. *On the Figure of a Mass of homogeneous Fluid in Equilibrium, and having a Motion of Rotation.*

The first inquiry in this chapter is designed to ascertain the figure which satisfies the equilibrium of a fluid homogeneous mass, animated by a motion of rotation. It appears that the elliptical figure satisfies the equilibrium; for, if a, b, c, be the rectangular co-ordinates of any point of the fluid mass, and P, Q, R, the forces soliciting it parallel to these co-ordinates, then, to satisfy the equilibrium, we have

$$0 = P.da + Q.db + R.dc.$$

Now, suppose the figure of the fluid mass to be an ellipsoid of revolution, having the same axis of rotation as of revolution: if the forces, P, Q, R, which result from this hypothesis, substituted in the preceding equation of equilibrium, give the differential equation of the surface of the ellipsoid, the hypothesis is lawful, and the elliptical figure satisfies the equilibrium of the fluid mass.

Chapter 4. *On the Figure of a Spheroid very little different from a Sphere, and covered with a superficies of Fluid in Equilibrium.*

In the preceding chapter, it was determined that, if the figure of the fluid mass was elliptical, the fluid would be in equilibrium: but the complete solution of the problem requires that all the figures of equilibrium should be determined *à priori*; or that it should be rigorously proved that the elliptical figure is the only one that satisfies the conditions of equilibrium. Besides, it is very probable that the heavenly bodies are not homogeneal masses, and that they are denser towards the centre than at the surface: in the research of their figure, therefore, it is not proper to limit it to the hypothesis of their homogeneity: but then the research presents great difficulties. Luckily, it is simplified by the consideration of the little difference

ence existing between the spherical figure, and the figures of planets and satellites: so that the square of that difference and of the quantities whence it depends may be neglected. In spite of these simplifications, the research of the figure of the planets is as yet very complicated. In order to treat the subject generally, M. La Place considers the equilibrium of a fluid mass covering a body formed of shells of different density, animated by a motion of rotation, and solicited by the attraction of external bodies.

Chapter 5. *Comparison of the preceding Theory with Observations.*

Chapter 6. *On the Figure of Saturn's Ring.*

Chapter 7. *On the Figure of the Atmosphere of the heavenly Bodies.*

After having determined the figure of the atmosphere, and shewn that the atmosphere can have only one possible state of equilibrium, the author applies his results to the atmosphere of the sun; and from such application he shews that the fluid, which reflects the Zodiacal light, is not the atmosphere of the sun: but that, since it surrounds that star, it ought to circulate about it, according to the laws which the planets observe; and this, he remarks, is probably the cause of its opposing a resistance nearly insensible to their motions.

Book IV. *On the Oscillations of the Sea, and of the Atmosphere.*

Chapter 1. *Theory of the Flux and Reflux of the Sea.*

Chapter 2. *On the Stability of the Equilibrium of Seas.*

Chapter 3. *On the Manner of estimating, in the Theory of the Flux and Reflux of the Sea, the various Circumstances which, in every Port, influence the Tides.*

Chapter 4. *Comparison of the preceding Theory with Observations.*

These chapters form the most complete treatise on the tides that has hitherto appeared. In this subject, M. La Place does not merely collect, arrange, and illustrate the labours of other mathematicians; he claims the superior honor which is due to inventors. The problem of the tides, commenced and imperfectly treated by Newton, received a more full and particular solution from the great geometricians *Maclaurin*, *Euler*, and *Bernouilli*. Still, however, it was only solved on a partial hypothesis, which the mathematicians above mentioned were constrained to adopt, from the imperfect state of analysis, and of the doctrine of the motion of fluids. The discoveries and improvements of *D'Alembert* in pure analysis, and in the theory of the motion of fluids, afforded means for treating this most difficult problem in a more general manner; and M. La Place

PLACE first undertook, in the Memoirs of the Academy, (1775, 1776, 1789,) its complete solution, or at least its solution on an hypothesis very nearly conformable to the real circumstances that present themselves in nature. *Euler*, *Maclaurin*, and *Bernouilli*, disregarded in their calculation the oscillations to which the sea must necessarily be subject, and, with Newton, supposed the sea to be every instant in equilibrium under the action of the sun and moon.

Chapter 4. *On the Oscillations of the Atmosphere.*

BOOK V. *On the Motions of heavenly Bodies round their proper Centres of Gravity.*

Chapter 1. *On the Motions of the Earth, about its Centre of Gravity.*

Chapter 2. *On the Motions of the Moon round its Centre of Gravity.*

Chapter 3d and last. *On the Motions of Saturn's Rings round their Centres of Gravity.*

In physical astronomy, the intricacy of the subject and the abstruseness of the analyses employed in treating it are so great, that even the bare comprehension of its principles and processes is not to be lowly rated. To M. LA PLACE, not only belongs the merit of having reduced to a system that which preceding mathematicians unconnected with each other had written, but the rare and enviable commendation which is due to original invention:—for, since the time of Newton, few if any mathematicians have done more to verify the principle of gravitation; whether we regard the improvement of old methods of analysis, the invention of new, the more particular and complete solution of the problems that were first solved by Newton and his immediate successors, or the solution of new problems infinitely more difficult. The portion of the present work which belongs to M. LA PLACE as inventor may most easily be ascertained by reference to his former labours, viz. on the secular inequalities of the planets, in the *Mémoires des Savans Etrangers*, tom. 7.—the *Recherches sur le Systeme du Monde*, in which is considered the motion of a planet in a resisting medium, and the figure which an homogeneous spheroid of revolution very little differing from a sphere ought to take, so as to be in equilibrium by virtue of the mutual attraction of all its parts, and of its rotation round the axis of revolution; (Memoirs of the Academy, 1772:)—On the law of gravitation at the surface of homogeneal spheroids of revolution; phænomena of the flux and reflux of the sea; oscillations of the atmosphere caused by the action of the sun and moon; (Mem. Acad. 1775, 1776:)—On the nutation and precession, as affected by the fluidity of the water covering the earth; in which curi-

ous disquisition, the author proves that the effect of the sun's and moon's attraction on the precession and nutation is precisely the same as if the sea formed with the earth a solid mass; (Mem. Acad. 1777:)—On the orbits of comets; (Mem. 1780:) —On the attraction of spheroids, and on the figure of the planets; (Mem. 1782:)—On the figure of the earth; (Mem. 1783:)—On the secular inequalities of planets and satellites; on the theory of Jupiter and Saturn; (Mem. for 1785, 1786, 1788.)—On the secular equation of the moon; (Mem. Acad. 1786.)

A philosopher retired from the world, and viewing the many absurd and fanciful theories that have for a time amused or perplexed mankind, may sagely and in solemn maxims warn us to beware of rash hypotheses, since the only true road to philosophy is by remounting from phænomena to causes. However salutary the warning and just the maxim, yet philosophy, as we learn from its history, has been advanced by far different methods. It cannot boast of all its acquisitions made by rule and scientifically, but must attribute many to chance; and frequently truth, which has eluded the purposed and formal search, has unexpectedly presented itself to the mind rambling after hidden harmonies, or bewildered among fanciful analogies. *Kepler*, the great precursor of the greater Newton, had his propensity to hypothesis corrected by *Tycho*, who instructed him to rely on observations: but, impelled by an ardent imagination, he continually deviated into the wilds of conjecture. We should, however, mark the good fortune of philosophy: *Kepler*, persuaded that the principle of simplicity every where pervaded and regulated the universe, was led to the discovery of the elliptical form of the orbits of the planets; searching after the mysterious analogies of the Pythagoreans, he chanced to develope the important truth that the squares of the periods of planets are proportional to the cubes of their axes majors. After *Kepler* came *Descartes*, a philosopher than whom none was ever more fond of hypothesis. With an active and rapid genius, he disdained the method of experiment, which is naturally slow and successive; placed himself at the fountain head of the universe; and derived the phænomena according to the order of his thoughts. He conferred, however, great benefit on philosophy, by overturning established error, and by first attempting to account for the phænomena of the universe on mechanical principles.— At length came the true philosopher, worthy to be so called both for his method and his discoveries; destined to realize the ideas of Bacon; and born with all the sagacity, accuracy, and soundness of judgment, which he prescribes to a faithful

interpreter of nature. Newton, with a comprehensive grasp, brought together under his view all that *Descartes*, *Huygens*, and *Galileo* had done, and generalized their discoveries.—The results of *Kepler*'s investigations were no longer unimportant, for in Newton's hands they became the means of leading to the principle of gravitation. Although some of his time was consumed in overthrowing the system of Vortices, and more in perfecting analysis, (then insufficient to the solution of problems which it was necessary to accomplish,) he was nevertheless enabled to verify the law of gravitation to a considerable extent. He proved that a body, urged by a force varying inversely as the square of the distance, describes a conic section: that a sphere attracts a particle situated without its surface, in the same manner as if all its mass were collected into the centre; and that a particle situated within the sphere is at rest. He also shewed that, agreeably to the theory of gravitation, the equinoxes ought to be retrograde: that a flux and reflux of the sea ought to result from the action of the sun and moon; and that to the same action the inequalities in the moon's motion are to be attributed. All these problems Newton did not indeed completely resolve. If we except the problems of the elliptical form of the planets' orbits, of the attraction of spherical bodies, and of the intensity of gravity at the surface of those planets which have satellites, the others can only be said to have been commenced: yet it has been properly observed that, in spite of the indirect methods which are to be found in the *Principia*, the importance and generality of the discoveries, and the great number of original and profound views which have been the germ of the most brilliant theories of the geometricians of this age, (and all this presented with considerable elegance,) assure to the work *of the mathematical principles of natural philosophy* a pre-eminence above all other productions of the human mind.

After the discovery of the principle of universal gravitation, fifty years elapsed without the system of Newton receiving any remarkable confirmation. At the end of that time, appeared the three celebrated treatises on the tides; and the geometricians of the continent have since verified the hypothesis of Newton in every part of the universe: so that there is now scarcely a phænomenon of which they have not assigned the cause and the laws. M. La Place observes that, 'if to England be due the advantage of giving birth to the discovery of universal gravitation, it is principally to the French geometricians, and to the encouragement of the academy of sciences, that we owe the numerous developements of that discovery, and the revolution which it has produced in astronomy.'—It

may now be asked, however, if all parts of the universe are subjected to the laws of gravitation, what remains to be done? Is not the astronomer's occupation gone?—We can learn from no one so properly as from the present author, what ought to be the object of future astronomers.

'It remains, (says he,) to make numerous observations on our own system. The planet Uranus and his satellites, lately discovered, afford ground for supposing the existence of other planets hitherto not observed. The movements of rotation, and the flattening (*applatissement*) of many planets and their satellites, are not yet determined; nor are the masses of all these bodies yet known with sufficient precision. The theory of their motions is a series of approximations, of which the convergency depends at once on the perfection of instruments and on the progress of analysis; and which ought thus daily to acquire new degrees of exactness. By precise and multiplied mensurations, all the inequalities of the earth's figure, and of the gravity at its surface, will be determined. The return of comets already observed; the new comets which may appear; the appearance of those which, moving in hyperbolic orbits, ought to wander from system to system; the perturbations which all these stars undergo, and which, by the approach of a large planet, may entirely change their orbits; the accidents which the proximity and even the shock of these bodies may occasion in planets and satellites: lastly, the alterations which the movements of the solar system experience from stars, and the developement of its great secular inequalities, indicated by the theory of gravity, and which observation has already nearly detected; such are the principal objects which this system offers to the researches of astronomers and future geometricians.

'Astronomy, considered in its most general point of view, is the fairest monument of the human mind, the most noble proof of its intelligence. Seduced by the illusions of sense and self-love, man regarded himself a long time as the centre of the motion of the stars; and his idle pride has been punished by the terrors which they inspired. At length, many ages of laborious research removed the veil which covered the system of the world. Man then perceived that, on a planet almost imperceptible in the vast extent of the solar system, he himself was only an insensible point in the immensity of space! The sublime results, to which this discovery has conducted, are well calculated to console him for the extreme smallness and for the rank which it assigns to his earth. Let us preserve with care, let us augment the store of these sublime truths, the delight of thinking beings! They have rendered important services to agriculture, to navigation, and to geography: but their great benefit consists in having dissipated the fears occasioned by the phænomena of the heavens, and in having destroyed the errors which arose from ignorance of our true relations with nature; errors the more fatal, because social order should rest solely on these relations. Truth and justice are its immutable laws. Far from us be that perilous ~~ous~~ maxim, that it is sometimes useful to deviate from them, and to deceive or to subjugate men in order to insure their happiness. In all

all times, fatal experience has shewn that these sacred laws are never violated with impunity.'

We cannot terminate our account of this work with more propriety, than with these reflections of its celebrated author. R. Wood....

ART. VII. *M.* LA CROIX *on the Differential and Integral Calculus.*

[*Article concluded from the Appendix to Vol.* xxxi. p. 493—505.]

IN resuming our attention to this important work, we now come to Chap. 4. *Theory of curve lines.*—Although the principal object of this chapter is, as it ought to be, the application of the differential calculus to the theory of curve lines, yet the author judges it proper to give a succinct account of that part of the theory which is purely algebraical.

In the beginning of the chapter, M. LA CROIX shews how to express the course of a curve by its equation; and, *vice versa*, how to represent an algebraical equation by a geometrical curve. He very justly complains of the deficiency of proof, in the generality of elementary treatises concerning the necessity of drawing ordinates, expressed by negative quantities, on the side of the abscissa opposite to that on which ordinates expressed by positive quantities are drawn. In the proof of this necessity, however, which is taken from the works of *D'Alembert*, there is, to adopt a French idiom, something to desire.

In the determination of the tangents of curves, the author follows a method similar to, but not exactly the same as, the one pursued by *La Grange*. Either that of LA CROIX, or that of *La Grange*, is indisputably preferable, in point of perspicuity, to the methods generally given, and obscurely explained by the motion of lines, or the equalities of the two limits, the algebraical and geometrical.—A like observation is to be made on the theory of the circles of curvature, involutes, evolutes, &c.

The method by which M. LA CROIX determines the expression for the fluxion of the area is deficient in evidence: if y be the ordinate and A the area, a function of the abscissa, then when x becomes $x+dx$, A becomes

$$A+\left(\frac{dA}{dx}\right)dx+\left(\frac{d^2A}{dx^2}\right)dx^2+, \text{ \&c.}$$

and if the ordinates increase, then

$$\left(\frac{dA}{dx}\right)dx+\left(\frac{d^2A}{dx^2}\right)dx^2+, \text{ \&c.}$$

is $\angle\left(y+\left(\frac{dy}{dx}\right)dx+, \text{ \&c.}\right)dx$

$\angle\ ydx$;

$\smallsmile ydx$; and .·. M. La Croix concludes that, since these quantities are the limits,

$$\left(\frac{dA}{dx}\right) dx \text{ must equal } ydx;$$

and .·. that dA must $= ydx$: a true result certainly: but the complaint is against the method of obtaining it *.

Chapter 5th. *Theory of curve surfaces, and of curves of double curvature.*—The theory presented in this chapter is due to *Monge;* who, the present author observes, has not only treated in a different manner all that *Clairaut* and *Euler* have done on this subject, but has added very considerably to what was known before him. See *Savans Etrangers*—Memoirs of the Academy.

The end of this chapter terminates the Differential Calculus.

Second Part. *On the Integral Calculus.*

Chapter 1st. *On the integration of functions of one variable quantity.*—The object of the integral calculus is to remount from the differential coefficient to the function from which it was derived. We can always descend from the function to the differential coefficient, or from the primitive function to the derived function: but, generally speaking, the reverse step is attended with the greatest difficulty. From the days of Newton to the present, all the great mathematicians of Europe have devoted a large portion of their time to the improvement of this calculus; and have invented methods of transformation, by which the integral of the differential might be assigned; or of approximation, in order to obtain a near value of the integral. The present chapter is a rich and well-arranged repository of these methods; by which may be integrated rational functions, as

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* We cannot forbear to commend a very valuable remark of M. La Croix, on the exactness of *Leibnitz*'s notions concerning the *metaphysique* of the differential calculus. The *remark* is founded on a letter from *Leibnitz*, in which he speaks of a work of a geometrician named *Sturmius;* and the extract from the letter is as follows: "*Sentio autem et hanc et alias methodos hactenus adhibitas omnes deduci posse ex generali quodam meo demetiendorum curvilineorum principio, quod figura curvilinea censenda sit æquipollere polygono infinitorum laterum; unde sequitur quicquid de tali polygono demonstrari potest, sive ita, ut nullus habeatur ad numerum laterum respectus, sive ita, ut tanto magis verificetur, quanto major sumitur laterum numerus, ita ut error tandem fiat quovis dato minor: id de curva posse pronuntiari.*"

Acta Eruditorum, Ann. 1684, p. 585.

(*Ax*

$$\frac{\left(Ax^{n-1}+Bx^{n-2}+Cx^{n-3}+, \text{ \&c.}\right)dx}{x^n+Px^{n-1}+Qx^{n-2}+, \text{ \&c.}}$$

$$\frac{(Ax+B)dx}{\left(x^2+2\alpha x+\alpha^2+\beta^2\right)^m} \text{ \&c.}$$

or irrational functions, as

$$Pdx\sqrt{A+Bx+Cx^2}, \qquad \frac{Xdx}{\sqrt{A+Bx-Cx^2}},$$

$$Xdx\left(\frac{a+bx}{a'+b'x}\right)^{\frac{m}{n}}, \qquad \frac{X^{m-1}dx}{\left(1-x^m\right)^{2m}\sqrt{2x^m-1}}$$

or, by the method of series forms, as

$$\frac{dx}{\sqrt{a+bx^4}}, \qquad \frac{dx\sqrt{1-ex^2}}{\sqrt{1-x^4}}, \text{ \&c.}$$

or logarithmic and exponential functions, as

$$Xdx.lx, \quad \frac{a^xdx}{x}, \text{ \&c.}$$

or circular functions, as

$Xdx\times$arc, (x being sine, cosine, or tangent,)

$$\frac{dx \text{ sine } x^m}{\cos. x^n}, \quad \frac{dx}{a+b\cos. x}, \text{ \&c. \&c.}$$

Chapter 2d. *Application of the integral calculus to the quadratures of curves, to their rectification to the quadrature of curve surfaces, and to the content of the solids comprehended by them.*—When methods have been established for integrating forms, as Xdx, X being any function, the chief difficulty in finding the areas of curves is surmounted: since the differential expression for the area of any curve is ydx, y being the ordinate; and if y be given a function of x (X) there only remains to find the integral of Xdx, and to correct it according to the circumstance of the case. This chapter, which contains many examples for the quadrature, rectification of curves, &c. is terminated by an exposition of the methods which *Euler* employed in his researches concerning curves that are quadrable, rectifiable, &c.

Chapter 3d. *On the integration of differential equations of two variable quantities.*—Here is a most valuable collection of all that has been written on this intricate subject: it contains methods for separating the variable quantities in differential

equations of the first order; for investigating a factor proper to render a differential equation of the first order integrable; for ntegrating differential equations of the first order, in which the differential quantities pass the first degree *; for obtaining particular solutions of differential equations of the first order; for resolving, by approximation, differential equations of the first order; for constructing, geometrically, differential equations of the first order; for integrating differential equations of the second order by means of transformations; for investigating a factor proper to render differential equations of the second order integrable; for resolving, by approximation, differential equations of the second order; and for integrating differential equations of orders superior to the second.

Chapter 4th. *On the integration of functions containing two, or a greater number of variable quantities.*—This chapter presents methods for investigating a function containing several variable quantities, when its differential coefficients of the same order are given explicitly or implicitly; for the integration of partial differential equations of the first order; for the integration of partial differential equations of orders superior to the first; for constructing, geometrically, partial differential equations, and for determining the arbitrary functions that contain their integrals; and for treating total differential equations which do not satisfy the conditions of integrability.

Chapter 5th, and last. *On the method of variations.*—The calculus of variations originated from certain problems concerning the maxima and minima of quantities having been proposed, by *John Bernouilli*, to the mathematicians of Europe. Such a problem was that in which it was required to find, of all curves passing through two fixed points, and situated in the same vertical plane, that one down which a body would descend from the highest to the lowest point in the least time possible. The first geometricians, remarking that nothing was obtained by putting the differential of the time, $\frac{dz}{\sqrt{x}} = 0$, found that they could obtain a solution by making the time a minimum for two successive elements of the curve; thus, if x, x', x'' were three vertical abscissas, and y, y', y'' the corresponding ordinates, the time would be expressed by

$$\frac{\sqrt{(x'-x)+(y'-y)^2}}{\sqrt{x}} + \frac{\sqrt{(x''-x')^2+(y''-y')^2}}{\sqrt{x'}},$$

* Equations, as $dy+Pydx=Qdx$, (P and Q functions of x,) in which y and dy do not pass the first degree, are commonly called linear equations of the first order. M. La Croix styles them equations of the first degree, and first order.

the

the differential of which being taken, and put $=o$, gave a resulting equation $\frac{dy}{\sqrt{x}\sqrt{dx^2+dy^2}} = b$ a constant quantity; and consequently proved the curve to be a cycloid.—*Euler*, with far greater analytical knowlege than *John Bernouilli*, next treated these problems in a general manner, in his tract intitled, "*Methodus inveniendi lineas curvas maximi minimive proprietate gaudentes; sive solutio problematis isoperimetici latissimo sensu accepti.*" M. *La Grange* afterward gave greater generality to this calculus, by making variable not only y, dy, d^2y, &c. but x.

The explanation of M. La Croix affords a clear idea of the calculus of variations:

'Suppose (says he) the variable quantities at first connected together by an equation, or by any other dependence, to change by reason of the form of the equation, or of the relation that results from the dependence established between them ceasing to be the same; this circumstance cannot be expressed in a more general manner, than by regarding the increments of x and y, as absolutely independent of each other: since, in effect, this hypothesis, not designating any particular relation between x and y, comprehends all. It follows thence, that the calculus of variations can only be employed for expressions, to which the differential calculus has already been applied; and it differs from the last only by the independence which it supposes between the variable quantities, which before were considered as connected by constant relations. The following example will illustrate this notion. The expression $\frac{ydx}{dy}$, which belongs to the subtangent of a curve, represents a determinate function of x, when y is considered as a function whose composition in terms of x is known; and if this last changes, the first changes also. There will be, perhaps, some difficulty in conceiving how we can submit to calculation the variability of a function which is only the abstract dependence in which several quantities are with regard to each other: but this difficulty is removed, by considering that the connexion between the quantities y and x changes, if the first be made to vary independently of the second. Thus, in the example before us, if we suppose x to remain the same, and y and $\frac{dy}{dx}$ to change, the relation between x and y must necessarily have changed also, since these quantities are the immediate consequences of that relation: $\frac{dy}{dx}$, in the form $\frac{ydx}{dy}$ may alone be made to vary, since it depends only on one value of y: but, if an expression affected by the sign $\int$ be considered, y and $\frac{dy}{dx}$ must be made to vary at the same time; for it follows from the theory for the formation of integrals, that the value of a like function depends on the consecutive values of

of y, which are deduced from those of $\frac{dy}{dx}$.

'It is evident that, to take under this point of view the differential of any expression whatever, it is sufficient to make y, dy, d^2y, &c. vary without altering x: but, in treating this latter quantity, as variable as the first, we arrive at results more general and symmetrical than what are otherwise obtained, and which lead to very interesting remarks on the nature of differential forms. For these reasons, we shall adopt in this chapter the method of making x, dy, dy^2 vary. That the symbols of this new species of *differentiation*, in which x and y are considered as independent, may not be confounded with the symbols of the first, in which one of the variable quantities is regarded as a function of the other, we shall employ, after the manner of *La Grange*, the characteristic δ; and we shall suppose, with him, that, when y changes only by virtue of the change of x which becomes $x+dx$, its differential is dy: but that, when the relation of y and x varies, these two quantities become respectively $x+\delta x$, $y+\delta y$; and we note by the name of variations, the increments δx, and δy.

'Hence it follows that, as $du = \frac{du}{dx}dx + \frac{du}{dy}dy$,

u being a function of x and y,

so, $\delta u = \frac{\delta u}{\delta x}\delta x + \frac{\delta u}{\delta y}\delta y$.

'In applying this to the example $\frac{ydx}{dy}$, we must regard $\frac{dx}{dy}$ as a function of x and y; whence it results that

$$\delta\frac{ydx}{dy} = \frac{dx\delta y}{dy} + y\delta\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right)$$

and $$\delta\left(\frac{dx}{dy}\right) = \frac{dy\delta dx - dx\delta dy}{dy^2} = \frac{dyd\delta x - dxd\delta y}{dy^2}$$

for $\delta dx = d\delta x$, $\delta dy = d\delta y$—.'

M. La Croix then proves $\delta dx = d\delta x$, &c. After the methods for finding the variations of any function whatever, is given the application of the calculus to the problems of maxima and minima.

In the first part of our critique, we discussed the merits of the several principles which have been proposed as the convenient or real bases of the differential calculus; and we gave our approbation to the plan pursued by M. La Croix, according to which the calculus is made a branch of the algebraic art, and all foreign principle and *metaphysique* are excluded. In reviewing the body of the work, we have occasionally loitered to examine some of its parts: but perhaps we had acted more properly if we had merely announced the contents of each chapter; for so various and extensive is the subject matter, so interesting as indicating the gradual growth of science, and so important

important from its subserviency to the uses of physical astronomy, that any abstract, however closely compressed, if in the least satisfactory, would far exceed the bounds which the nature of our Review obliges us to observe. Although some of the chapters of this work are by no means secure from criticism, yet, viewing the accuracy with which the first principles are developed, the arrangement of its parts, and the symmetry given to the whole, it may be pronounced to be the most valuable that has hitherto appeared. It consists of 1250 quarto pages, closely printed; and we need not at all wonder at its bulk, when we consider that its design was to comprehend essentially all that has been written on the differential and integral calculus; a subject, towards which the researches of all the mathematicians, from the time of Newton to the present day, have been directed.

The first traces of the integral calculus are to be found in the Arithmetic of Infinites. Wallis, the author, by summing serieses of rational ordinates, was enabled to assign the quadratures of the curves to which they belonged. Newton, the inventor of the fluxionary method, advanced far beyond Wallis, and assigned the quadrature of curves of which the ordinates were irrational. What this great man did for the doctrine of fluents, or the integral calculus, is to be found in his treatise *de Quadraturâ Curvarum.* In his *Principia,* he concealed his analysis, and adhered to the manner of the antients. The documents concerning Newton are so scanty, that we cannot determine what motive induced him to prefer the synthetical method of demonstration; whether it was an opinion of its superior evidence and accuracy, or a wish to perplex and astonish his contemporaries, who could not be incurious to know the process that conducted him to his wonderful discoveries. As Newton was the inventor of the doctrine of fluxions and fluents, we may safely conjecture what was the analysis that led to the solution of the generality of his problems in the *Principia:* but we are completely ignorant of the manner in which he solved the 34th proposition of the 2d book, concerning the solid of least resistance: whether he effected it by a particular artifice, or whether he really possessed the calculus of variations of which *Leibnitz* and the *Bernouillis* are now esteemed the inventors.

Petty animosities, and mean jealousies, somewhat obscure the lustre of the fame of Newton and his contemporaries; yet, from the same source whence they flowed, sprang a generous and dignified emulation. The rivals of Newton thought and invented for themselves; had they been influenced by his authority, and devoted their talents to the perfection of synthesis,

thesis, science must have been considerably retarded. To the improvement of the algebraical analysis, is to be attributed the amazing advances of physical astronomy. We by no means wish to decry the method of synthesis: but those who are advocates for it do not state, with sufficient precision, its peculiar excellence; and perhaps it might be shewn, without any great difficulty, that the very circumstances, which cause its perspicuity and evidence, render it unfit for the deduction of truths that are remote and intricate.

The mathematicians to whom the integral calculus is chiefly indebted for its improvement are *John Bernouilli*, who integrated rational fractions; *James Bernouilli* *; *Cotes* who published in 1714 *Theoremata tum Logometrica tum Trigonometrica; Ricati* †; *Maclaurin*, author of a treatise in two volumes quarto; *Simpson*, *Fontaine*, *Clairaut*, *D'Alembert*, and *Euler*, whose researches on the integral calculus occur in the volumes of the academies of Paris, Berlin, Turin, and Petersburgh ‡; lastly, *Condorcet*, *La Grange*, *La Place*, *Monge*, and *Le Gendre*, have so considerably added to the integral calculus, that the work of M. La Croix, to supersede that of *Euler*, became absolutely necessary.

To propitiate or to refute those who are enemies to abstract science, and who fancy that they have advanced against it an unanswerable objection, when they complain of the inutility of its processes, it is to be observed that the integral calculus has not been improved for its own sake, but to supply the wants of the physico-mathematics. The necessity for integrating certain differential forms arose from those forms, or such as were similar, occurring in problems concerning vibrating cords, motion of fluids, figures of planets, causes of winds, oscillations of fluids, &c.; or, when we consider the many sciences of which physical astronomy requires the aid, we may briefly attribute to it alone the improvements that all parts of analysis have received. It is not meant to be said that the identical differential forms, discussed in works on the integral calculus, occur in the problems of physical astronomy; it is

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* *James Bernouilli* integrated the fluxional equation $y\cdot + Pyx\cdot = Qx\cdot$

† *Ricati* iutegrated the fluxional equation $y\cdot + ay^2x\cdot = Qx\cdot$

‡ The last author published in 1768 his *Institutiones Calculi Integralis*, a work highly enriched with original inventions; and in the same year, *Le Seur* and *Jacquier* published a work in two volumes quarto: these two last works of *Euler* and of *Le Seur* superseded a work of M. *Bougainville* published in 1754; which, however, had only the merit of being a collection, and was intended as a supplement to the *Analyse des Infinitement Petits* of the Marquis *de L'Hospital*.

sufficient

sufficient if such as are similar do. Those who say that the improvement of analysis ought to be exactly proportional to the demands of the arts and sciences are entirely ignorant of its nature; and if mathematicians were to act according to such unweighed notions, investigation would be clogged with tedious processes, not expedited by general and compendious methods. We trifle, however, in endeavouring to refute those who cannot be said seriously to have objected; and even those persons, who have reasonable grounds for apprehending that too much time and labour are employed in speculations on abstract quantity, may be warned how they prescribe limits to any investigation on the plea of its inutility, by the recollection that the properties of the Conic Sections, demonstrated by the Greeks, became, two thousand years afterward, the means of leading to the true system of the world *.

In the beginning of our examination of the present work, we animadverted with freedom, some may say with acrimony, on the method which the English mathematicians have adopted to explain and establish the principles of the fluxionary or differential calculus; and when we close our remarks by objecting to the *notation* of fluxions, we may seem to entertain an antipathy against every thing of English invention: we, however, make no apology for what we say, but briefly state our opinions and leave them to their fate.

The two notations may be most readily compared by writing down a series of fluxionary expressions, and immediately subjoining to each its equivalent differential expression.

1 { Flux. $\dot{x}$, $\ddot{x}$, $\dddot{x}$, --- $\dot{x}^2$, $\dot{x}^2$, --- $\dot{x}^4$
  { Diff. dx, d^2x, d^3x --- dx^3, $(d^2x)^2$ -- dx^4

2 { Flux. $\frac{\dddot{V}}{\dot{y}^3}$
  { Diff. $\frac{d^3V}{dy^3}$

3 { Flux. $\dot{\overline{Pr}} + \ddot{\overline{Pq}} - \dddot{\overline{Pp}} \text{ —— } \dot{y}^{n-m+1}$
  { Diff. $d(Pr) + d^2(Pq) - d^3(Pp) - d\,\dot{y}^{n-m+1}$

* The discoveries of *Kepler*, it is known, prepared the way for those of Newton. *Kepler*, after having tried whether he could account for the motions of the planets by placing the sun in a point, not the centre, within the circular orbit, examined the phænomena by placing the sun in the focus of an ellipse; and he chose the ellipse as being a curve next in simplicity to the circle, and the properties of which were known.

4 { Flux. $\frac{P^{\cdot}}{x^{\cdot}} + \frac{Q^{\cdot\cdot}}{x^{\cdot 2}} + \frac{R^{\cdot\cdot\cdot}}{x^{\cdot 3}} +$ &c.
  { Diff. $\frac{dP}{dx} + \frac{d\,Q}{dx^2} + \frac{d^3 Q}{dx^3}$

5 { Flux. $\dot{\varphi}(x, y)$
  { Diff. $d\,\varphi(x.y)$

6 { Flux. $\overset{n}{\dot{y}} + \overset{n-1}{\dot{q}y} \text{ —— } \overset{n-m}{\dot{t}y}$
  { Diff. $d^n y + d^{m-1} y - t d^{n-m} v$

7 { Flux. $\ddot{a}x\overset{n-2}{\dot{y}} + \dddot{b}x\overset{n-3}{\dot{y}}$
  { Diff. $ad^2x\,dy^{n-2} + bd^3x\,dy^{n-3}$

8 { Flux. $\left(\frac{z^{\cdot}}{x^{\cdot}}\right)^{\cdot}$
  { Diff. $d\left(\frac{dz}{dx}\right)$

9 { Flux. $\dot{V}, \dot{V}^{\text{I}}, \dot{V}^{\text{II}}, \dot{V}^{\text{III}}$
  { Diff. $dV, dV^{\text{I}}, dV^{\text{II}}, dV^{\text{III}}$

10 { Flux. $\left(\frac{ax^m + bx^{m-1} + \text{ &c.}}{\alpha x_n + \beta x^{n-1} + \text{ &c.}}\right)^{\cdot}$
   { Diff. $d\left(\frac{ax^m + bx^{m-1} + \text{ &c.}}{ax^n + \beta x^{n-1}}\right)$

11 { Flux.
   { Diff. $\delta\dot{x}$ --- $dx\delta dx$ --- $\delta V dx$

From a comparison of these expressions, it may be decided which notation is most commodious. We are of opinion that the differential notation is to be preferred;—

First, because it is least ambiguous; since in the 6th set of expressions the fluxionary is very ambiguous, owing to the position of the index; whereas, the differential expression is distinct; and the nth power of the fluxion of the variable is apt to be confounded with the nth fluxion of the variable, as in the 7th set.

Secondly, because the differential notation is more readily extended: since, in the 11th set, by means of the symbol δ, the

the variation of a quantity is expressed in a manner analogous to the differential: the equivalent fluxionary expression is omitted, because we know not how the notation can be extended to this case.

Thirdly, because the differential notation is most readily apprehended by the eye.

Fourthly, because typographical errors will be less frequent in the differential notation.

On such considerations as these, the question must be determined. It is certainly of no great importance: but it is desirable to have the same notation universally adopted, in order to facilitate the communication of science between different nations.

An English mathematician, if he would judge impartially, must not suffer himself to be deluded by the facility which habit has given him, of writing and understanding the fluxionary notation; he must divest himself of national prejudice; and he must not imagine that he basely resigns Newton's claim to the invention of fluxions, because he quits its notation as incommodious. No one more sincerely admires that great man than we do: but we know of what kind and extent the admiration which is paid to him ought to be, and which he himself (if living) would approve. Contemplating the prodigious efforts of his genius, we are sometimes kindled into enthusiastic admiration: but, in the more sedate moment of reflection, we recollect that not even of Newton should we say,

"*Vestigia pronus adoro.*" **R. Wood.....**

ART. VIII. *Lettre à M. le Redacteur du Monthly Review, &c.; i. e* A Letter to the Editor of the Monthly Review; or an Answer to the Objections advanced in that Work against the Method of the Limits of Hypothetical Fluxions. By M. STOCKLER, Colonel of Artillery, Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences, and Professor of Mathematics to the Marine Academy, &c. 4to. pp. 74. Lisbon. 1800. From the Press of the Royal Academy of Sciences.

WHEN we gave an account of the first * volume of the Transactions of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Lisbon, (Appendix to our twenty-eighth vol. p. 571,) we criticized a memoir by M. STOCKLER 'on the true principles of the method of Fluxions.' Dissatisfied with our judgment, that author has addressed to us a formal printed reply; in which he proposes to vindicate his theory of Fluxions, to assert the honor of the Academy of Lisbon, and to destroy the effect of

* The *second* has not yet reached our hands.

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an invidious comparison which we are said to have made between him and M. *La Grange.*

We asserted that M. STOCKLER, in his theory, 'supposed quantity to be generated by motion.' In the present letter, he positively denies that he had conceived quantity to be generated by motion; and he attributes our misrepresentation to ignorance of the Portuguese language. Although we cannot boast of a very intimate acquaintance with that language, we yet thought it very strange that we should have been betrayed into so gross a mistake: we have therefore recurred to the memoir, and with great patience and care have again perused it; the consequence of which is that our former notions of the nature of M. STOCKLER's principle of explanation are more fully established; and we affirm that he really and essentially conceives quantity to be generated by motion; or in other words, that he apprehends quantity to be generated as Sir Isaac Newton has supposed. It is true that he does not use the words *generated by motion*, but he certainly conceives quantities as admitting successive augmentations or diminutions by a continual flux. That there may be no farther question concerning our knowlege of the Portuguese language, let us attend to the author's explanation of his principle as now given in French; '*Ce que je suppose effectivement dans ma theorie, c'est que toute quantité, qui change de grandeur continuellement et successivement, doit être regardée comme ayant à chaque instant une certaine tendance pour changer d'etat, et que ses acroissemens, ou ses diminutions, doivent etre considérés comme des effets qui en proviennent.*'

It is allowable, in order to facilitate reasoning, to use general names, as force, velocity, tendency, &c. and such terms stand for occult qualities said to be the cause of certain effects: but, prescinded from the effects, we cannot possibly form any idea of such causes: so tendency means nothing abstracted from its effect; and it is impossible for us either to conceive it ourselves, or to render it intelligible to others, except by the intervention of a space described in a given time. Hence, thoroughly to understand M. STOCKLER's principle, we must consider the effect of this tendency which quantities have to change their state; and the effect is the space that *would be described* were the tendency to continue uniform. Newton, considering quantities generated by motion, supposes them at each point of time to have a certain velocity (or tendency): the measure of which velocity is the space that *would be* described were the motion to continue uniform. Now it appears that, since, to render M. STOCKLER's principle intelligible, it is necessary to conceive portions of space passed over by a moving body, we were perfectly accurate in asserting that the

author conceived quantity generated by motion, and that his principle was the same as that of Newton. He may indeed exclaim against our absurd attempt to regulate and mould his own conceptions: but, unless a person suffer himself to be deluded by vain abstractions, he will find, on examination, that the fundamental notions of Newton's and M. STOCKLER's theory are precisely the same; and this is all that we could possibly mean, when we asserted that the latter conceived quantity to be generated by motion.

After M. STOCKLER's explanation of his own principle, (to which is subjoined an obscure note,) comes a passage designed to shew that the mode, according to which he considers quantity to be generated, is conformable to the true nature of things.

'The idea of motion, (he says, p. 5.) and the idea of velocity, are too particular to be admitted into a general theory of fluent quantities. Ideas ought only to enter there which are common to all kind of quantity, and to all kind of change of magnitude, provided that it be continual; and it is precisely on this account that Maclaurin and Newton are to be blamed, for having established the theory of fluxions on the ideas of motion and of velocity. It is also true that my theory is essentially dependent on the ratio of the parts of time: but the idea of this ratio is not a principle, nor an element peculiar to the theory of motion, as is at present supposed. The idea of time has a necessary connexion with the general idea of succession: the mind cannot conceive one without the other; and, as the quantities called fluents are precisely those which change their magnitude continually and successively, the idea of succession, and consequently of time, are essentially comprised in the idea of a fluent quantity. It would, then, be an unreasonable pretence to wish, that the ratio of the parts of time should be regarded as a foreign principle, in the general theory of this kind of quantities.'

If we rightly understand the author, he means to say that the idea of successive and continual change is derived from contemplating things in nature, and is common to all kinds of quantity. Newton also speaks of his principle obtaining in nature: "*Hæ geneses in rerum naturâ locum vere habent, et in motu corporum quotidie cernuntur.*"

Notwithstanding this authority *, we deny that the phænomena of nature, and the objects of mathematical investigation, appear to undergo successive changes of augmentation or diminution; or that they are fluents. The principle of generation by motion, or of successive change of magnitude, (for

* Newton probably does not mean that this *genesis* is common to all objects; only that, as some objects appear to be generated by motion, all (figuratively) might be conceived to be so generated.

both principles are at bottom the same,) is a partial one, not really derived from the nature of things *, but feigned for the purpose of illustration, and of aiding conception; since by it a sensible mode is offered to the mind, by which all quantities may be conceived to be generated. If M. STOCKLER first assumes all quantities to be fluents, then in the idea of such quantities that of time is comprized, but only in consequence of such assumption.

M. STOCKLER next proceeds to examine M. *La Grange*'s method of determining the coefficient of the second term in the developement of $f(x+i)$; and he endeavours to shew that the method reduces itself to that of ultimate ratios, or the limits of isochronous increments. In this attempt, however, he is very far from really shewing that the two methods are identical: he only proves that the method of limits may be deduced from that of the developement of functions: but the latter method is the general one, and by a general method we understand one that includes all particular methods and partial artifices.

The doctrine of fluxions, founded on the limit of isochronous increments, we never said to be fundamentally wrong; only that it was partially derived, and not founded on the general properties of quantities. M. *La Grange* has given a general theory independent of all partial hypothesis and *metaphysique*; and his theory necessarily includes all partial theories. In the same manner, the binomial theorem includes the methods of multiplying binomial quantities together, of extracting their roots, &c.: but would it not be very absurd to endeavour to prove that the binomial theorem, and the method for extracting the square-root of $1+x$, were identical, because the former method might be made to coincide with the latter? The "*a ne point nommer*," &c. forms one of the advantages of M. *La Grange*'s method, and gives to it that perspicuity and generality which other methods want.

On the next passage of M. STOCKLER, in which he speaks of his principle being derived from the *nature of things*, and that of M. *La Grange* from the algebraical representation of quantities; and in which he represents himself as conquering difficulties, and M. *La Grange* as shunning them; we forbear to comment: partly because we have already exposed the fallacy of the notion, that the principle of successive change of magnitude is derived from *the nature of things*; and partly to

* How can Gravity, Rarity, Force, Elasticity, &c. treated in fluxionary calculations, be said to pass from one state of magnitude to another?

avoid

avoid the accusation that might possibly be alleged against us, of wantonly indulging in acrimonious animadversion. The application of the theory, however, to questions of maxima and minima, we cannot pass without notice; and if we required an instance of the obscurity and perplexity into which partial hypotheses and general terms lead, we should extract the 13th and 14th pages of the present letter. He who can conceive the tendency of a tendency of a tendency, &c. must possess a much greater fineness and elevation of thought than we can boast.

The second article of accusation, which we advanced against M. STOCKLER, was that he had not shewn how, in the developement for $F(\varphi+w)$, to wit, $F\varphi+P'w+P''w^2+P'''w^3+$ &c. the functions P', P'', &c. were derived from $F\varphi$; nor why they were independent of w; nor why, in the developement, only whole and positive powers of w appeared;—and we now think, since the subject treated was of an elementary nature, that no subsidiary principle ought to have been introduced, except such as was either evidently true, or had been established by other authors in the strictest manner.—In what regards the method of deriving P', P'', &c. M. STOCKLER says we are wrong in accusing him of any fault, for he asserts that he has shewn in his memoir, that $P'=\frac{dF\varphi}{d\varphi}$, $P''=\frac{dd\,F\varphi}{1.2\,d\varphi^2}$ &c. If, however, we at all understand the author's reasoning, (p. 210) P' is not proved $=\frac{dF\varphi}{d}$, but $dF\varphi$ is proved $=P'd\varphi$; that is, it is shewn that the fluxion of a quantity ($dF\varphi$) is found by calculating the second term ($P'd\varphi$) of the series for $F(\varphi+d\varphi)$. In the memoir of M. STOCKLER, no method is given for calculating $dF\varphi$ independently of its equality with $P'd\varphi$.—To shew *à priori* that, in the series for the developement of $F(\varphi+w)$, only whole and positive powers of w are found, the author of the present letter represents $F\varphi$ by a series $A+B\varphi^m+C\varphi^n+$ &c.; and consequently $F(\varphi+w)$ is represented by $A+B(\varphi+w)^m+C(\varphi+w)^n+$ &c. Expanding, then, the quantities by the binomial theorem, and connecting together the terms affected by the same powers of w, it appears that $F(\varphi+w)=F\varphi+P'w+P''w^2+$ &c.—In this demonstration, it seems to us that M. STOCKLER tacitly supposes what it is required to prove; for how can the binomial theorem be proved, except by previously shewing that $(\varphi+w)^m$ may be expressed by a series $\varphi m+aw+bw^2+$ &c. ascending according to the powers of w? Let it be recol-

lected that it is required to prove generally, and *à priori*, that every function $F(\varphi+w)$ developed has its terms ascending to the powers of w: now $(\varphi+w)^m$ is included under $F(\varphi+w)$ To suppose, therefore, $(\varphi+w)^m$ to be expanded according to the powers of w, is to suppose in part what it is the object of the demonstration to establish; and since it is at the same time assumed that every function can be expressed by a * series $A+B\varphi^m+$ &c. there is little that remains to be done. Whatever demonstration M. STOCKLER may be able to give of the binomial, it must still be true that his proof of the developement of $F(\varphi+w)$ is not general and *à priori*.—We cannot here omit to mention the great skill with which M. *La Grange* has conducted his proofs: he first shews by antecedent reasons that $f(x+i)$ must ascend by powers of i: next he shews how the coefficients of the developement ($fx+pi+qi^2+$ &c.) are derived the one from the other; and then he shews that the form for the binomial theorem is only a particular instance of the general law obtaining for the developement of $f(x+i)$. This method of proceeding appears to us very masterly and admirable.

In the next part of his letter, M. STOCKLER quits the defence of his own theory, and sallies forth in an hazardous attack on M. *La Grange*. That learned geometrician, in examining the case in which the developement of $f(x+i)$ is faulty, says that, if X be a function of x, which becomes o when $x=a$ and fx contains a radical $\sqrt[m]{X}$, then a radical of the form $\sqrt[m]{i}$ appears in the developement of $f(x+i)$. His proof is as follows:

Substitute in X for x, $x+i$

then X becomes $X+iX'+\frac{i^2}{1.2}X''+$ &c.

when $x=a$ $X=o$

$\therefore$ the series is $iX'+\frac{i^2}{1.2}X''+$ &c.

$\therefore \sqrt[m]{X}=\sqrt[m]{i}\ (X'+\frac{i}{1.2}X''+$ &c.) $\therefore$ the function $f(x+i)$ in the case of $x=a$ contains the radical $\sqrt[m]{i}$, which must therefore appear in its developement, &c.

M. STOCKLER says, however, that fractional powers do not necessarily enter into the developement of $f(x+i)$; and where

* If M. STOCKLER consults the Introduction to *La Croix's* Treatise on the differential Calculus, and the first chapter, pages 86, 87, he will find himself anticipated in his demonstrations.

does

does M. *La Grange* assert that they must necessarily enter?—He proves, and strictly, that, according to the form of the developement of functions, namely $fx + if'x + \frac{i^2}{1.2} f''x +$ &c. they must necessarily enter: not that fractional powers must appear, whatever be the manner in which functions are developed. The inquiry is not concerning all possible modes of expanding functions, but concerning the particular developement $fx + if'x + \frac{i^2}{2} f''x$, in which $f'x$, $f''x$, $f'''x$, &c. are derived in a certain manner from fx.

To put the matter beyond all doubt, let us attend to M. *La Grange*'s own words, after he has proved the consequence of infinite terms appearing in the developement of $f(x+i)$, if a fractional power of i enters.

"*Pour trouver alors la vraie forme du developpement de i, il faudra faire d'abord dans la fonction* $f(x+i)$, *x egal a la valeur donnée, et developper ensuite suivant* les puissances croissantes de i par les regles connus, *en ayant egard aux puissances fractionnaires ou négatives de i qui se trouveraient dans la fonction même.*"

We need not add, after this, that the whole of M. STOCKLER's pretended criticism falls to the ground.

After this attack on M. *La Grange*, (which the author would never have made if he had attentively considered the nature and object of the demonstration in dispute,) we meet with an animadversion not only on M. *La Grange* but on other mathematicians, for the erroneous opinion which they commonly entertain respecting a perfect equality subsisting between the function to be developed, and the sum of the terms of the series which arise from its developement. It is well known that mathematicians have fallen into many absurdities when treating of infinite series: but we were much surprized to find M. STOCKLER claim the honor of having first distinguished between the sum of a series and its generating function: we accordingly distrusted the obvious meaning of his words, and sought to discover a more latent and deep one, but without success. We believe that M. STOCKLER has been anticipated at least forty years in his '*remarque si importante.*' As he may distrust our bare assertion, we refer him to Euler's Memoir, p. 205. to *Novi Commentarii Acad. Scient. Imper. Petrop.* Tom. 5. and to *Condorcet*'s Memoir, p. 193. in the Memoirs of the Academy of Paris for the year 1769.

M. STOCKLER may now find that we have read too much: in his letter, he suspects us of having read too little; yet we can assure him most sincerely that we had perused M. *La Grange*'s

memoir in the Berlin acts long before the Lisbon Transactions came to us. We never asserted that M. *La Grange* had accurately proved the series for the developement of u: he says, however, that, by the theory of series, the function of $x+i$ will be of the form $u+pi+qi^2+$ &c. which is true, as appears by taking particular instances. This, however, is not a general and *à priori* proof, but is of the same nature as the one which is given by M. STOCKLER in his present letter.

so far R. Wood....

Having thus fully adverted to the mathematical part of M. STOCKLER's letter, we have now to say a few words respecting his remarks on our criticism on his eulogium of *D'Alembert*. In the Appendix to our 28th volume, p. 579—580, we observed that this eulogium was of too panegyrical a cast: to which he replies that his style is not panegyrical, because it is not flowery. We did not say that it was flowery. Panegyric does not require flowers and metaphors: it consists in excessive and indiscriminate praise.—To prove the justice of our opinion respecting M. STOCKLER's paper, it will suffice to transcribe a couple of periods, literally translated.

Speaking of the preliminary discourse to the French *Encyclopedie*, he says: (p. 554.) "Every thing (in this discourse) proclaims that the universe was to *D'Alembert*'s mind a single fact, a single great truth, which he could comprehend at one glance; and that in reality his soul embraced the whole system of human knowlege"!!! P. 575. "His virtues were not less admirable than his talents: deaf to the voice of ambition or of vanity, he never hesitated to despise the greatest honours and riches; nor in promoting the credit of those very men, whom other people would have supposed to be his rivals in glory."

The whole of pages 576, 577, is filled with the same kind of fulsome praise and misrepresentation.

Let all those who are acquainted with the history of the sect of Encyclopedists, and with the life and death of its Patriarch, candidly pronounce whether we have wronged M. STOCKLER, in suspecting that his enthusiasm for mathematical science has led him too far into indiscriminate praise of such a character as *D'Alembert*.

M. STOCKLER allows that his paper is not written in the manner of *Fontenelle*: but he is of opinion that the superiority of the eulogiums composed by that celebrated author is become problematical, since the publication of those which have been written by *D'Alembert*, *Bailly*, *Vicq D'Azir*, and *Condorcet*; and he challenges us to give a comparative statement of their merits, in opposition to those of *Fontenelle*. As, however, their relative merits have been fully discussed by men of taste in the most enlightened nations of Europe, and as the question has been

been long since determined, the generality of our readers will rather require from M. STOCKLER the grounds of his opinion, than desire us to repeat what they already know. We suspect, also, that they will consider his assertion and challenge as an instance, that the depths of science do not always lead to exquisite nicety of taste.

from p. 502.
Correa

We here close our long answer; and we believe that there is not one of M. STOCKLER's objections which we have not fairly and directly met. If he entered into the discussion in the pure search of truth, and with the firm conviction of the fallaciousness of our criticism, he may feel himself obliged to us for the particular examination of his letter; if wounded pride or disappointed vanity urged him to the controversy, we fear that we have now offended him beyond the hope of pardon. The sources of consolation, however, will not be all dried up: M. STOCKLER may acquiesce in the approbation of the Lisbon Academy, may shelter himself under its authority, or may again appeal to the geometricians of Europe:—he may console himself with the idea, which he maintains, that it is not the custom of journalists to retract their opinions,—may accuse us of being sciolists,—or may deny our title to what he has called our best quality, impartiality.

R. Wood.....
See above.

ART. IX. *M. Fabii Quintiliani de Institutione Oratoria Lib. XII. ad codicum veterum Fidem recensuit, et Annotatione explanavit,* GEORG. LUDOVICUS SPALDING, *A. M. Gymnasii Berolino-Coloniensis Professor. Vol. I. continens Lib. I.—III.* 8vo. *maj. Lipsiæ.* 1798.

THE most striking difference in the literary pursuits of modern times, compared with those of antiquity, appears in the superior attention formerly paid to the *principles* and *practice* of eloquence. It is well known that the Greeks and the Romans regarded this art as the noblest of intellectual acquirements; in the education of their youth, it constituted the principal object of attention; and abstract science was cultivated not more for its immediate value, than for the sake of the materials which it might contribute to the exercise of their persuasive powers. In modern academies, on the contrary, (if we except a weekly theme or a few Latin verses, occasional repetition of Latin and Greek poetry, or now and then of passages selected from the compositions of their own countrymen, and in a few of them an exhibition somewhat public once or twice in a year,) it were scarcely too much to assert that the study of oratory has long since been totally neglected. To enlarge on the evil consequences of this neglect would be foreign to our immediate purpose; independently of its importance on public occasions, we must all be aware that eloquence *was*,

and still *might* be, the brightest ornament of private conversation and social intercourse, the most irresistible recommendation and the firmest support of religion and philosophy.

It is said, however, that our youth have much more to learn than was ever contemplated by the antients. We readily admit that learning has widely extended its dominion: but is it not also beyond comparison more accessible? and of how little efficacy is all the knowlege which we possess, if we have not the talent of displaying it to advantage? Let it be objected that there have existed in modern times, and do exist in the present age, orators capable of rivalling a Cicero or a Demosthenes: grant that it is so; such men are what they are in spite of the modern system of education, not in conseqnence of it; or rather, they have formed themselves on the antient system, in contempt and defiance of modern prejudice.

It is therefore with great pleasure that we notice a new edition of the treatise of Quintilian on oratory; since no relique of antiquity can be fairly deemed of equal utility to those who would study the principles of eloquence; and the publication now before us, as far as we may conclude from the only volume hitherto published, promises to be one of the most complete editions that has ever appeared, of any classical author whatever.

In an elegant and pleasing address, Prof. SPALDING dedicates these first fruits of his literary labours to his father, a truly venerable Divine resident at Berlin. In praise of Quintilian, he very justly observes:

'*Videmus hominem, annis jam provectum, accedere ad perscribenda ea, quæ magna cum laude diu discipulis suis præiverat. Plurima inest præceptis gravitas, unde agnoscas scriptorem et rerum momenta et hominum ingenia expertum. Neque tamen sobria hæc et subacta Magistri prudentia, eò minus in admirationem summorum oratorum solet abripi et juveniliter quasi gestire. Prodit se nobis animus pulchri et honesti tam cupidus ut nullo usu, nullo labore, potuerit ad horum sensum occalescere. Quæcunque offeruntur in scriptoribus quos tractabat egregia, ea quasi, tum denique cognosceret, animum ejus feriunt, ut nullus adolescens recentior esse posse videatur in hac voluptate.*'

In the preface, to which the reader naturally refers for the plan of the edition, as well as for the editor's resources, the Professor thus mentions the description of persons for whom his labours are principally designed:

'*Sunt igitur ii et juvenes literis dediti, qui quidem in Romanis et Græcis scriptoribus aliquantum jam profecerint,—et viri non proprie in antiquitate explicanda occupati, qui cum legendum sumunt gravem quendam et elegantem scriptorem veterum, multa, ad sensus ejus cognoscendos necessaria, (in artis tractatione præsertim a recentiorum usu remotæ, qualis est Rhetorum antiquorum) minus prompta et in numerato habeant necesse est,—quia aut sunt obliti, aut nunquam pro studiorum suorum ratione attigerunt.*'

Suitably

Suitably to this character of readers, we find (as it was obvious to expect) a more copious commentary than would be necessary to the profound scholar; at the same time, with a discretion not always observable in his countrymen, the learned editor seems carefully and successfully to have avoided the tediousness of prolixity. – In the history of his author, we wish that he had been less sparing. He excuses himself from publishing a life of Quintilian, because it may be collected from *Gesner*'s preface, from *Ernestus in bibliotheca Fabriciana*, and from the various writers to whom they refer. Yet we cannot but lament the omission. The author's life must necessarily be interesting to his admiring readers, who very possibly may have neither *Gesner* nor the *biblioth. Fabr.* at hand.—On the same principle, we object to the note on "*Grammaticum Aristophanem*," Lib. I. 1. in which, probably from the editor's regard to conciseness, the impatient student is referred to *Wolf's Prolegomena ad Homerum.* "*Omnia mea mecum porto*" should be the language of an editor who aspires, with such just pretensions, to supersede his predecessors.

As a reason for spelling his author's name QUINTILIANUS instead of QUINCTILIANUS, the Professor observes,

'*In ipsos operis hujus titulos induci hæc ratio cæpit, nisi fallor, anno superioris seculi tertio et nonagesimo a Gibsono, qui cum Leidensem Rhetoris nostri editionem repeteret, de suo addidit* C *ante* T. *Sed habuit ille autores scripturæ suæ magnos viros et in primis diligentes, ut Sigonium, Lipsium, Muretum, G.I. Vossium, alios;* codicem quidem MS. vereor ut ullum,—*in ipso nostri certe scriptori* s*nomine, cum in cognatis Quinctiorum, Quinctiliorum, non rara sint hujus scripturæ exempla.*'—'*Adhuc non nisi unum lapidem, unumque idem nummum cognovi, qui* QUINCTILIANUM *præferrent. Est enim hoc nomen ita scriptum in Fastis Capitolinis p. Gruteri* 295, *et in nummo apud Patinum* (*in familiis Romanis pag.* 188.) *in gente Nonia, quorum utroque utitur Dukerus ad Liv.* 1, 30, 2. *dum* C *defendit in hujusmodi nominibus. Utrumque exemplum est ætatis Augusteæ, cujus ego scripturam non dubito* vetustam *appellare et* cascam *præ Quintiliani Rhetoris. Habes enim, ut hoc utar, etiam* AIMILIUM *in Lapide Capitolino. Et credibile est, si quid lapidibus inciderint nummisve incusserint* ad antiquum morem, *non perinde* in familiari usu *trivisse, – nisi forte quis esset Catoniani horroris curiosus.*'—'*Ceterum frequentissima sunt apud Gruterum et Muratorium exempla nominis hujus literæ* C *carentis.*'

Unquestionably nothing is more common in monumental or pecuniary inscriptions, than to affect the appearance of antiquity; and if, as Prof. S. observes, there were in use two methods of writing this name, the one more antique and monumental, the other more modern, more natural, and more conformable even to the antient pronunciation, there can be no doubt, from the character and disposition of Quintilian, that he would have adopted the latter. "Nothing," says Quintilian,

Quintilian, L. I. 6. "is more odious than the affectation of using words *ab ultimis et jam obliteratis repetita temporibus,—qualia sunt .... exanclare ....*" &c. "*Ut novorum optima erunt maxime vetera, ita veterum maxime nova.*" Unfortunately the modest author, so far as we are able to recollect, never once introduces his name into the work itself.

In the list of *MSS. Codices* consulted by the editor, or his friends, we find the *codex Gothanus* formerly collated by *Gesner* and now again compared with *Gesner*'s edition; '*in quo labore,* (says the Professor) *vel vilissimas varietates transcribendi tædium devorare malui, quam quidquam prætermittere;*' and where any various reading of importance appears to have been overlooked by *Gesner*, it is now inserted in the *Notæ criticæ*, with the words (*tacet Gesn.*) annexed. Having thus scrupulously examined this MS. he concludes, '*Illud ex ipsis a Gesnero positis scripturis manuscripti Gothani, magis tamen ex meis, cognovi, esse summam Gothani et Vossiani* secundi *codicum similitudinem*;' whence he infers that *Gesner* has over-rated its value;—because, not unfrequently, where these two differ from all others, the readings which they offer are worse, and such only as are found in the most antient *editions*, contrary to the united authority of numerous *codices*.

On his good fortune in meeting with the two following MSS., we sincerely congratulate the learned editor; one of which, discovered in the library at Wolfenbuttle, (and thence called *Codex Guelferbytanus,*) and by him first collated, he concludes must in all probability have passed through the hands of *Angelo Politiano.*

'*Docuit me simul vir doctissimus* (*Langerus, dignissimus magni Lessingii in bibliotheca Guelferbytana successor*) *librum hunc,* in Italia scriptum, *sibi videri procurante Nicolao Heinsio pluteis Guelferbytanis illatum, cum primum bibliothecæ Budensi regis Matthæi Corvini Florentiæ esset adornatus, neque tamen missus eo, quoniam picturæ a miniatorum manibus nondum essent appositæ. Huic autem regi Thaddæus Ugoletus Parmensis libros ornamentaque alia Florentiæ procurabat, cum scribebat is, qui narrat Angelus Politianus. Miscellaneorum capite* 23. *p.* 36. *Fac. Grut. vol. I. Ita satis fit probabile codicem nostrum a doctissimo hoc viro fuisse curatum, quo non parva ipsi accedit auctoritas.*'

He then remarks that it surprizingly agrees with the *Codex Bernensis*, and with the *first* and *third* Vossian; both of which he deems of much higher value than the Gothan and *second* Vossian; '*sunt enim fere eorum scripturæ doctiores, difficiliores, denique tales quæ* correctorem recentioris ævi *minus arguant.*'

The other MS. belonging to the library at Zürich, (thence called *Codex Turicensis,*) and very diligently collated by M. *Sultzberger*, clergyman of that town, and by others of the edi-

tor's friends, claims with him the highest possible authority; partly from its very singular agreement with the *Codex Almelovenianus*; ('*neque enim*, says he, *de pretio isti codici statuendo aliter sentio quam Lochmannus V. C. in programmate edito A. D.* 1788, *p.* 5. *qui ejus et Bodleiani primas censet esse partes in Quintiliani textu repurgando*:') but above all from circumstances in its history, communicated to him by M. *Sultzberger*, which seem to prove that it is the identical copy which was discovered by Poggio at the convent of St. Gallo. (Vide Roscoe's Lorenzo de Medici, vol. I. cap. I. p. 36.) M. *Sultzberger*'s words are as follow: "*Hujus, qui in bibliotheca Turicensi servatur, codicis dominum aliquando fuisse Monasterii Sangallensis abbatem, apparet e duabus, quæ in ultima pagina leguntur inscriptionibus. Illatus autem est in pluteos Turicenses*, ineunte hoc quod vivimus seculo." *Mabillon*, in his Germanic travels, (p. 36. Hamb.) mentions, among other valuable books which he saw and examined in the library at St. Gallo, A. D. 1573. "*Quintiliani institutiones*," in a very antient MS. which Poggio *borrowed* from the library of St. Gallo *for the purpose of transcribing*.—After several other very ingenious and interesting remarks, M. *Sultzberger* concludes with observing, "*Librum hunc Quintiliani literarum initialium ceterarumq. formis et colore, scribendiq. compendiis, satis accuratè convenire cum sacramentario quodam Sangallensi, itidem in bibliothecâ Turicensi custodito,—quem librum Martinus Gerbertus, monasterii et congregationis Sancti Blasii in Sylva nigra abbas, in monumentis veteris Liturgiæ Alemannicæ*, ante seculum certe nonum scriptum esse demonstrat." Hence he infers that the MS. of Quintilian, lodged by Poggio in the Florentine library, was not the original but the copy; and that the *Codex Turicensis*, placed at the beginning of the 18th century in the University-library at Zürich, (founded A. D. 1520) is the original MS.; the same which *Mabillon* saw in 1573.

The inference is certainly very plausible: but, on the other hand, as Prof. SPALDING observes, Bandinius, who saw the Florentine MS. was surely a man capable of discerning whether it was of the 15th century, or of so much earlier a date; and he declares it positively to be the original, supporting his opinion by the authority of Poggio himself and Raphaële Regio.

On a subject, therefore, on which so "much may be said on both sides," we conclude with the editor, '*Quidquid id est de* Menæchmis *illis Codicum Sangallensium, utrumq. veterrimum esse mihi plane persuadeo.*'

We are next presented with a most respectable list of editions, which Prof. SPALDING's opportunities and industry enabled

enabled him to consult. Our readers, however, will probably be satisfied with the preceding specimens of his diligence and resources; and we shall therefore proceed, without farther delay, to notice some few particulars in his application of them.

Lib. I. 1. "*A Græco sermone puerum incipere malo; quia Latinum, qui pluribus in usu est, vel nobis nolentibus* perbibet;" on which *Gesner*'s remark is, "*Perhibet, G.*" (*Goth.*) "*sed* Præbet *merito præfert Burmannus.*" Prof. SPALDING has certainly restored the right reading out of the *Codex Guelf.*

'*Sed eam dederat jam Obrechtus ex Argentorat. profecto;* male tamen excerptus a Burmanno, *qui ei falso tribuit* perhibet. *Etiam Goth. 2. habet nostram, vid. Gesn. addenda. Ceteri codd.* Latinus . . . se perhibet. *Recentiores plerumq. edd. ut et Gesn.* Latinus . . . se præbet. Præbet *nullum cod. habet cognitorem.* "Perbibere liberalia studia" *Seneca dicit, quod vel Lexica docent.*'— —

— — "*Certa sit ergo imprimis lectio, deinde conjuncta; et diu* lentior donec *exercitatione contingat emendata velocitas.*"

'*Juvat hoc exemplo* (says Prof. S.) *monstrare tironibus quomodo corrumpi soleant scripturæ in codd. Hic enim Guelf. cum Goth. et iis quos Regius tractabat dant* lentius ordo donec. *Regius receptam eruit quam videntur præferre Bodleianus et alii, de quibus tacent qui contulerunt.*'

All this is very satisfactory: but the Professor would certainly have done well in noticing *Gesner*'s igenious conjecture; "*Pro solæco illo* lentius ordo, *suspicor dedisse Fabium,* lentus ordo: *ita certe melius respondet* emendata velocitas."

Lib. I. 2. "*Et* velut *publicis præceptoribus tradere.*" Prof. SPALDING's conjecture on the *velut* in this passage is very judicious: he supposes that the title of *Public* Præceptor was not at that time in common use, ('*nimirum ipse noster memoratur primus* publicæ *scholæ moderator, qui salarium e fisco acceperit, apud Hieronymum in Chronico Eusebiano,*') and therefore required the excusative *velut.*

— — "*Quid non adultus concupiscet, qui in purpuris repit? Nondum prima verba exprimit, et jam* coccum *intelligit, jam conchylium poscit.*"

For *coccum,* the Professor would read (as in the Guelf. & Ald. Codd.) *cocum,* h. e. *coquum;* and he interprets *conchylium,* not of the colour so called, but of the fish from which it took its name: as in Horace, Epod. 2. 49. Sat. 2. 4. 30.—8. 27, &c. By *intelligere coquum,* he understands, '*Jam nosse quis domi sit coquus, aliquam cum eo consuetudinem contraxisse; ejusmodi fere est, cum noster Socratem negat esse* intellectum, II. 1. 10.' &c. Thus he thinks that Quintilian is only stigmatizing the vice of gluttony, and that the latter part of the sentence ("ante palatum eorum *quam os instituimus*") is an exact paraphrase

phrase of the former ("*nondum prima verba exprimit et* jam coquum intelligit," &c.)

The conjecture, it must be allowed, is very ingenious; yet we cannot wish that the present reading were changed. The author seems to us desirous of reprobating in succession four distinct vices; in which the children were so cruelly indulged; * love of finery, † gluttony, ‡ effeminacy, and § licentious conversation.

—— "*Sensum enim, qui communis dicitur,*" *&c.* In this and in many other instances, we have occasion to admire the diligent accuracy of the editor, in tracing the origin and progressive signification of words from the golden to the silver age of Latinity. The phrase in question was not used *absolutely*, he says, till towards the latter end of the Augustan age. Hor. Sat. I. 3. 66., Phædr. 1, 7. Seneca; & Juvenal 8, 73.

Lib. I. 4. "*An rursus aliæ redundent* [*literæ*], præter illam aspirationis *notam* quæ, si necessaria est, etiam contrariam sibi *poscit*," &c. Prof. SPALDING here omits the sign Ⅎ after *notam*, as also the sign ⅃ after *poscit*, which are found in *Gesner* and most other editors since the 17th century; they are also, he says, in some few codices, though the greater number (Guelf. &c.) omit them. '*Non autem supervacuæ solum sunt, sed turbant prorsus locum; si eas posuit Quintilianus, sequitur, ejus tempore in quotidiano usu fuisse notam* Ⅎ, *quod quis est qui defendat? nam si quærit Grammaticus, an* redundet aspirationis nota Ⅎ, *sequitur, ut* invenerit eam in alphabeto.' (With submission to the editor, we think that he here charges his adversaries with an inference not necessarily deduced from the premises: the text, as *Gesner* and others have it, does not call the Ⅎ a *letter*, but simply *notam aspirationis;* the Grammarian, therefore, might deem the character redundant; though, as it was not strictly speaking a letter, he should not have met with it in the alphabet:—yet this does not invalidate the general argument, which only requires it to have been in use.) 'But if those characters be omitted, (as they are in most codices,) Quintilian alludes to that well-known mark of aspiration H; and by "*illam*" signifies either *quam novimus, de qua solet ultro citroq. disputari*, or refers to the H of HERE in the preceding line.' Cf. Priscian, p. 560. "H *literam non esse ostendimus sed notam aspirationis, quam Græcorum*

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* "*Nondum prima verba —— poscit.*"

† "*Ante palatum eorum quam os instituimus.*"

‡ "*In lecticis crescunt: si terram attigerint, e manibus utrinq. sustinentium pendent.*"

§ "*Gaudemus si quid licentius dixerint.*"

antiquis-

antiquissimi, similiter ut Latini, in versu scribebant, nunc autem diviserunt,—*et dexteram ejus partem supra literam ponentes, psilen* (ψιλὴν) *notam habent,—sinistram autem contrariam illi aspirationis dasiam* (δασεῖαν)." Now Priscian, we know, wrote about 450 years after the death of Quintilian; consequently, the expression "*nunc diviserunt*" must, in all probability, refer to a period later than the times of Quintilian:—which makes very strongly in favour of Professor SPALDING's hypothesis. On the other hand, the learned Francis Wise, with whom Burgess agrees, (p. 408. *Dawes Misc. Crit.* Edit. Burgess. 1781.) evidently supposes Quintilian to have inserted the H & H,—*but thinks that he was mistaken in so doing;* "*Haud nescio Quinctilianum Romanosq. Grammaticos contra meam sententiam omnino facere:* verum Romanæ Inscriptiones plus quoviscunq. Grammatico valere debent;" and he then instances an inscription of a date much earlier than the Greek accents, but later than the age of Quintilian; in which both the H & H are used, *nullo discrimine*, as marks of *aspiration*: "*illud vero* H," he concludes, "*nunquam pro* leni *adhibetur.*" It seems, therefore, that, had Fr. Wise and Burgess been aware that those characters were omitted in most *codices*, (vid. supra) they would readily have acquitted Quintilian of the erroneous insertion.

— — "*Atque etiam in ipsis vocalibus Grammatici est videre, an aliquas pro consonantibus usus acceperit,—quia* Jam *sicut* Tam *scribitur, et* Uos *ut* Cos." *Gesner* reads, "*quia,* Jam *sicut* Tam *scribitur, et* Quos *ut* Cos;" which he thus interprets; "Jam *scribitur et pronunciatur pro monosyllabo non minus quam* Tam; *ergo J non est vocalis in eâ voce, sed consonans;* Quos *ut* Cos, *itaq. n. V vim vocalis non habet: neq. junguntur in his vocibus J & A, itemq. V & O, ut vocales.*" Surely, however, as Professor SPALDING says, the word *Uos* (which has the authority of the *Cod. Almelov.* and several editions, as Locat. Rusc. Bad. Viart. &c.) is much better adapted than *Quos* to illustrate Quintilian's meaning. *U* in *Uos*, having the force of a consonant, corresponds to the *C* in *Cos*; just as *J* in *Jam*, having the force of a consonant, corresponds to the *T* in *Tam*: whereas the *U* in *Quos* cannot, strictly speaking, be considered as a consonant; for either it is totally lost, and the *Qu* pronounced like a K, as in the French *Qui, Que*; or it is a genuine vowel, making part of a diphthong *Uo*, which like the (UU) W-A in *water* (or, as we might write it in order to give a Frenchman the idea of its pronunciation, *ou-ater*) is really a dissyllable, though by habit pronounced so rapidly as to pass in general for a monosyllable.

We

We shall not, however, follow the Professor any farther in his commentary on Quintilian's accentuation and orthography: but he has very diligently and successfully coped with those difficulties by which, more than by any others, young students are so apt to be discouraged. We hope that he will employ an equal degree of industry and acuteness in illustrating Lib. VIII. 6. and Lib. IX. *de Tropis et Figuris.*

Lib. I. 5. "*Olympo --- non patitur.*" The note on this passage is so nearly like that of *Gesner*, that we think it should have been attributed to him. It is so very easy to render unto each critic his due, by simply subjoining the initial of his name, that we are sorry that it should ever be thus inadvertently omitted.

Lib. I. 8. —— "*et quibus sunt commata Sotadeorum* (*nam de* Sotadeis *ne præcipiendum quidem est*)" &c. Here we have a various reading, which, as the editor observes, is certainly worth notice: ("*Sotadeis*; *sotadicis*, *Guelf. cum Vos.* 1. 3. *et Vallensi cod. narrante Badio.*) '*Possit enim videri de carminibus ipsis dictum* Sotadica, *de metro* Sotadea *vel* Sotadei, *cum præsertim modo in* Sotadeorum *nulla sit Codd. varietas*,' &c.

On the subject of *Sotadean* and *Galliambic* metres, the Professor (on the authority of *Hephæstio*, *Diomedes*, *Terentianus*, and *Fortunatianus*,) has supplied his readers with a copious, clear, and learned note; not so much to illustrate the laws of the Rythm, for which the reader is referred to Herman *de metris*, as the meaning of his author in the present instance, '*ut mollities metrorum ostendatur*;' and this he derives from the frequent occurrence of trochaic feet, and of the short syllables into which they and the Ionic feet are resolvable: as also from the lasciviousness of the subjects generally expressed in them *. As for the property of some Sotadean verses, that, being read backwards, they are either just the same as when read in the natural order, or constitute at least some regular metre, we perfectly agree with Professor S. that it was not in Quintilian's contemplation:—for, as he observes, '*Quomodo ad metri hujus mollitiem referatur, quod potest etiam retrorsum legi?*'

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* So Aristotle Rhet. L. III. c. 8. ὁ δὲ τροχαῖος κορδακικώτερος· δηλοῖ δὲ τὰ τετράμετρα· ἔστι γὰρ τροχερὸς ῥυθμος τα τετράμετρα. The reader will find a remarkable instance of this application of Trochaics Tetram. Cat. in the Ειρηνη of Aristophanes 330—335.

Also Quintilian (citante Spalding) 9, 4, 135. "Trocheos, *ait*, (*intelligit autem tribus brevibus constantem pedem*) *celeres quidem sed sine viribus esse.* It. 9, 4, 88, and 136. *chorei. In hujusmodi pedes et syllabas cadentem compositionem Senec. pater vocat* non tantum emollitam, sed infractam." Controv. 19. p. Bip. 233.

Here

Here, with the reader's permission, we must close for the present our remarks on this valuable work: which we have confined to the first book, as they were intended rather to convey an idea of what might be expected from Professor SPALDING's talents and exertion, than as a critical account of its merits, which we shall reserve till its completion We have nothing farther to wish with regard to the merit of the three remaining volumes, than that the editor may justify us in prophecying to our readers, "*Ex hoc uno disce omnes.*"

Anon.

G. Butler Cambridge afterwards Master of Harrow School

ART. X. *Mémoires de l'Académie Royale des Sciences*, &c. *i. e.* Memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres at Berlin.

[*Article continued.*]

WE now return to the consideration of the labours of this Royal Society; our present business being to report the contents of those papers in the classes of *Experimental Philosophy* and *Mechanics*, in the volume for 1792 and 1793, which we left unnoticed in our Appendix to vol. xxx. (pp. 551—557.); and also to give an account of the volume for 1794 and 1795.

EXPERIMENTAL PHILOSOPHY. Vol. 1792—1793.

Memoir on the Badger. By M. WALTER, *senior*. *Translated from the German.*—This memoir contains a full and apparently accurate description of the anatomy of the badger. The author takes occasion to correct some mistakes committed by M. *Daubenton*; and he has particularly elucidated the very singular structure that occurs in the organs of generation.

On the Nature of Colours. By M. BURJA.—This dissertation has but little original merit. In the true German manner, it is chiefly occupied with relating the opinions and discoveries of others. The remarks are ranged under four heads.

1. *Artificial Optic Colours.*—Father *Castel* appears to have been the first who reduced all the artificial colours to three primary colours, namely *blue*, *yellow*, and *red*. He rejected the triple compound, and maintained that the whole compass of tints and shades might be produced by the binary combination of those elements in various proportions. The celebrated astronomer *Mayer* improved on *Castel*'s idea: he formed an equilateral triangle, of which each side was divided into 12 parts; the whole thus containing 91 cells or square compartments, omitting the small triangular spaces left on the upper margins. The three extreme cells were blue, yellow, and red, and the intermediate cells marked the series of gradations; those on the sides, the double combination; and those of the interior, the

the triple combination, according to their respective distances from the apices. The ingenious *Lambert* observed that the effects were modified by the vivacity of the colouring materials, and that it was necessary to settle previously whether those were to be apportioned by their bulk or their weight. M. *Achard* has lately written an elaborate essay on the same subject. M. BURJA shews that, though white should result from a mixture of the primary colours, it requires the blue and red to be joined to an excess of yellow. The binary compounds are best produced by the mixture of equal parts by weight of the elementary tints; and the process may be repeated with the results, so as to afford any number of intermediate shades. Those shades may be darkened at pleasure, by the addition of similar mixtures of black and white.

2. *Natural Optic Colours.*—Aristotle held that all colours are derived from the various intermixture of light and shade, or white and black; and that vision is performed by the *diaphaneity* of bodies, or that property by which they act on the organ of sight through the medium of light. The system of *Descartes* was still more vague and obscure. It was *Newton* who first demonstrated the genuine nature of colours, and his optical theories (with very considerable modifications) will probably survive the revolutions of ages. Several difficulties have been started; and whoever examines the subject with nice attention will be convinced that many important corrections are still required. Yet the system of emanations is founded on sounder logic than, and is altogether incomparably superior to, that of æthereal vibrations, proposed by *Huyghens* and strenuously adopted by *Euler*.

3. *Artificial Dioptric Colours.*—It has been objected to Newton's account of the prismatic colours, that some of those which are enumerated are not original colours, but result from the mixture or partial coincidence of proximate coloured rays. M. M. *Beguelin* and *Achard* have written copiously on that point. M. BURJA will admit only three primary rays, and ascribes the gradations of colours in prismatic spectra to the various extension and intermixture of three solar images:—but this opinion is untenable: though all the colours *may* be produced from blue, yellow, and red, it does not surely follow that the white light of the sun *is* actually composed of those elements only. It is unphilosophical to be led away by the supposed simplicity of nature. Far from abridging the catalogue given by Newton, we are convinced, with *D'Alembert*, that the number of primary rays is extremely large, perhaps unlimited. In fact, by placing a second diaphragm before the prism in a darkened room, the lucid pencil may be contracted

at pleasure; yet there is not observed a number of distinct separate circles, but a long coloured space, with imperceptible gradations.

4. *Natural Dioptric Colours.*—Under this title, are ranged the colours of the rain-bow; which M. BURJA, adhering to his principle, will not admit to contain more than three.

To the memoir are subjoined some additions:—the mode of best forming a tablet of the colours;—a reply to the objections urged by *Marat* against the system of the unequal refrangibility of the rays of light;—and the description of the *Squedasimeter*, or instrument for measuring the degrees of dispersion. That flimsy work was scarcely intitled to examination, in which the ferocious *Marat*, in a manner suited to his character, assumed a tone the most arrogant, dogmatic, and disgusting; nor will the Squedasimeter be at all admired by those who are acquainted with delicate apparatus.

Memoir on Numismatic Analysis. By M. KLAPROTH.—It appears that the Greek coins of Magna Græcia and Sicily consisted of copper, alloyed with from an eighth to a twelfth part of lead, and half as much of tin. The Roman coins were sometimes of pure copper, and sometimes had an alloy of one-fourth or one-sixth part of zinc, with a small portion of tin. Zinc was first described as a semi-metal by Albertus Magnus, in the 13th century. The antients were acquainted only with its ore, *calamine*. The compound of copper and calamine was *aurichalcum*, or our brass. M. KLAPROTH ingeniously conjectures that *messing*, which in the German language signifies brass, was derived from *Mossynæci*, the name of a people on the borders of the Euxine Sea; who, according to Aristotle, knew before the Greeks the mode of converting copper into brass. *Laiton* in French comes from the Arabic word *Latun*. The *plumbum nigrum* of the Romans was lead; and their *plumbum argentarium*, *album*, or *candidum*, was the *κασσίτερον* of the Greeks, or tin.

Chemical Analysis of the Waters of the Hot Springs in Iceland, and of the siliceous Tufa which they deposit. By the Same.—The results of this analysis agree very nearly with those given by the late Dr. Black in the Edinburgh Transactions. That celebrated professor ascribed the suspension or solution of the siliceous matter, exhibited by the springs of Hecla, to the presence of mineral alkali: but M. KLAPROTH contends, with other chemists on the continent, that silex is capable of being dissolved in pure water, perhaps assisted by the agency of heat; and that Dr. Black's opinion, that the alkali existed in a caustic state, is merely a gratuitous supposition.

On

On the Varieties of the Vine which are naturalized in the Marquisate of Brandenburg; on the Processes employed in their Culture; and on the Character given to the Wines of the Country: accompanied by some Ideas and some Experiments on the Means of ameliorating those Wines. Two memoirs by M. MAYER.—It will suffice to bestow a cursory glance on these elaborate dissertations; since the culture of wines in such a northern country as Prussia must be an irksome and precarious task. A wise government would consult its interests by directing the industry of the natives to those objects which are better suited to the nature of the climate. Generous wines cannot be raised in Brandenburg: but M. MAYER has shewn that it is possible in some degree to correct thinness and acidity, by the addition of ardent spirits or dried grapes; as practised indeed under more favourable circumstances.

Memoir on the Accidents of Forests, and on the Precautions and Remedies which may be employed. By M. F. A. L. DE BOURGSDORF, *Grand Master of the Royal Forests.*—These accidents are referred to four sources,—the weather and seasons,—the spreading of fires,—the devastation of insects,—and the obstructions caused by the growth of pernicious or parasite plants. The author throws out a number of sensible remarks, which our limits will not allow us to detail.

The proceedings of the Class of Experimental Philosophy close with a very ample register of Meteorological Observations, made by M. *Achard*, at Berlin, during the year 1789.

MATHEMATICS.

Memoir on a Question concerning Annuities. By M. DE LA GRANGE.—This is an intricate problem, in the solution of which M. LA GRANGE displays his usual precision and fertility of invention.

Researches on several Points of Analysis relative to different Parts of former Memoirs. By the same.—These valuable and recondite speculations are contained in four memoirs; the first, *on the expression of the general term of recurring serieses, when the generating equation has equal roots;*—the second, *on the elliptical spheroids;*—the third, *on the method of interpolation;*—and the fourth, *on the secular equation of the moon.* There is also a very large addition to a memoir on the variations of the elements of Herschel *(Uranus)*, printed in the volume for 1787. All of them are stamped with that comprehension of thought, that profoundness of views, and that command of resources, which may be expected in the first geometer of the age. The third and fourth memoirs are particularly important.

On the Number and Repartition of the Asterisms, By M. BURJA.—Nothing can be conceived more grotesque, and more truly absurd, than the figures of the constellations painted on our globes. Astronomy is almost as courtly as botany, and the confusion in the grouping of the stars is continually increased by new apotheoses. M. BURJA would restrict the number of constellations to one hundred, distributed into two zones and four empires:—but, where the evil has become so extensive and inveterate, such partial reforms are trifling, and even impracticable.

Researches on the particular Integrals of Differential Equations. By M. JEAN TREMBLEY.—An ingenious and elaborate paper: but the abstruse nature of such subjects precludes any attempt, on our part, to give an adequate account of them in this place.

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VOLUME FOR 1794, and 1795. 4to. pp. 620. Berlin. 1799.

This volume is prefaced, as usual, with some uninteresting details of the proceedings of the Academy: indeed, the routine of business is so little varied, that it is necessary to refer to the dates, in order to be convinced that we are entering on a fresh volume.—The activity of the leading members of the society seems to revolve in a very limited sphere; and tedious discussions are perpetuated from volume to volume, to the extreme annoyance of the inquisitive reader.

Under the article *Medicine*, we find a sort of Review, by M. MAYER, of some recent medical publications. It contains nothing worth the trouble of transcribing: but a manuscript-dissertation, by Dr. CARENO of Vienna, is announced, which promises some important facts. It treats of the efficacy of the *Digitalis lutea*, in dropsy. We are told that Dr. CARENO has found that this variety of the plant possesses a stronger diuretic power than the *Digitalis purpurea*, without any of its noxious effects; and that he has succeeded in curing dropsical patients with the *Digitalis lutea*, after the most powerful diuretics had failed.

It is obvious that these remarks will require decisive facts for their confirmation: but the public ought to be extremely grateful to any physician who shall produce the benefits, without the dangers, of so active a remedy as the *Digitalis purpurea*.

The Eulogy of M. Schultz, by M. ERMAN, affords a pleasing view of the progress of a mind enchanted with science, and struggling

struggling under the pressure of external circumstances, finally emerging from obscurity to distinction.

Speculative Philosophy.

Doubts concerning the Cases of the Calculation of Probabilities. By M. Ancillon. This memoir presents, in a declamatory form, the obstacles to the formation of a correct anticipation of probable events in the moral world. These obstacles are, the passions, interests, and prejudices of mankind; and M. Ancillon wishes to add a compound probability, arising from the habits of thinking generally contracted in different professions. It certainly ought to have occurred to the author that the obstacles to calculation, which he has enumerated, are the very circumstances which render calculation necessary; since, if all men reasoned correctly, and acted consequently, there could be no doubt and uncertainty respecting moral events. We observe no marks of superior ingenuity in the course of the paper; and we really think that this dissertation might have been very properly spared.

Considerations on the thinking Principle; or an Examination of the Passage of Locke on this Subject. By the Same. This paper relates to the much scrutinized expressions of our great metaphysician, which seem to imply that the faculty of thinking might possibly be superadded to matter. The author has employed a considerable part of his essay in opposing *Voltaire*'s animadversions on the subject: but, as his reasoning is neither very striking nor very conclusive, we shall not attempt to follow him through his attacks on the desultory passages of that lively writer. M. Ancillon argues against Mr. Locke's notion, from the immutability of essences, and the old scholastic doctrine of their independance on the will of God. We do not perceive, however, that he has reduced his antagonists to a dilemma, as he supposes; for who can develope the real essence of matter?

The memoir closes with a rambling criticism on the Essay concerning Human Understanding. The author ascribes much of the celebrity of that work to a party-spirit among philosophers, which, he thinks, induced them to exalt the productions of Locke above those of *Leibnitz*: but we see no reason for imputing the preference to any other cause, than the superior precision and truth of the English philosopher's opinions.

The next paper is an *Essay on this Question, What are the branches of knowlege which it is most important for Men to acquire, and what are the Sentiments with which we should especially seek to inspire them?* By M. Jean Trembley.

We entered on the perusal of this wordy declamation with a heavy heart. "The hopeless prospect of sterility," as our old friend Dr. Johnson termed it, chilled our exertions, and retarded our progress through such a world of common-places. The author has composed a *tritical essay*, indeed: but he has conducted it with sober dulness, and threatens to continue his labours through subsequent volumes. Inured as we are to the perusal of heavy compositions, we cannot regard this menace without uneasiness; and we do most earnestly beg for quarter from this unmerciful writer. We recommend particularly, though with all possible deference, to the attention of the society, the increasing scarcity of paper; and we entreat that they would guard, especially in this instance, against the improper waste of that necessary article.

Belles Lettres.

In this department, we find a translation from Claudian, of *the Discourse of the Emperor Theodosius to his Son Honorius*:—By M. Merian: which contains some good advice to the Supreme Governors of States. As a literary composition, we cannot be expected to criticise a prose French version of a Latin poem.

A laborious paper follows, *on the Antient Traces of Character of the modern Italians*. By the Abbé Denina. The learned writer continues the subject of the influence of soil and climate on national character, (see Appendix to vol. xxx. p. 554.) and he has here exemplified it with great industry; though perhaps with too much minuteness for Tramontane readers. We were amused, however, by some of his speculations.—In speaking of the tendency of the climate of Naples to heighten genius, and of Virgil's residence there, he adds: 'but when we see, of two of the most enlightened and correct poets, one (Virgil), born on the banks of the Po in the western and northern part of Italy, prefer the situation of Naples to that of Rome; the other (Horace), born in the territory of Naples, live and write on the hills of Latium; we are tempted to believe that this kind of transplantation is useful to the human mind. Who knows whether the brilliant vivacity of the Venusian poet might not have degenerated into inflation, if he had lived at Naples; and whether the correct judgment of Virgil might not have been dulled, if he had continued at Mantua?' It is an obvious answer to these suggestions, that the good company and fine literature of Rome probably called forth the inimitable powers of Horace, with more energy and correctness than the best of possible climates could

could have done; while Virgil, from the choice of his subjects, must have composed better in a more retired situation.

In labouring to prove that few natives of Rome have distinguished themselves in literature, the Abbé's zeal has led him into some palpable acts of injustice. He has condemned Varro as a mere pedant, without considering that we cannot judge of his lost books. Lucretius, also, is censured as 'more a versifier than a poet, or original philosopher:' but to this opinion we cannot subscribe: there are passages of great beauty and force (if not sublimity) in Lucretius's poem, which shew that he was only unfortunate in his subject, and that his powers were equal to any high flights of poetry.—The Abbé goes on to doubt Cæsar's merit as a writer, and to insinuate that he was not the author of his own commentaries! Surely M. DENINA must have forgotten the opinion of Quintilian respecting that book.—He proceeds; 'Was Sallust an historian comparable to Livy or Tacitus, though his style be purer Latin than that of the others?' We answer, that the bulk of Sallust's history has not come down to us; and the comparison is therefore unfair, as it is here stated. We might as well ask, Is Menander equal as a dramatic writer to Plautus?

'The great poets, (continues the Abbé,) who do honour to Rome, were neither Romans nor Latins, beginning with Livius Andronicus, Ennius, and Pacuvius, who were all three strangers. Virgil was a Cisalpine Gaul, Horace rather a Neapolitan than a Roman; Catullus a Veronese; Propertius an Umbrian. The two truly great and admirable authors, Livy, and Pliny the naturalist, were derived, one from Venice, the other from Insubrias. Tacitus was not properly of the Latin or even Sabine country, for Terni belongs to Umbria.'

These distinctions will appear to be more imposing than just, when we consider how long the different nations, so anxiously discriminated by the Abbé, had been united by the closest ties, before the birth of the great men to whom he alludes. What should we think of a critic who might endeavour to exclude, from the title of English authors, all the natives of this Island who were not born within the antient limits of East Angles!—M. DENINA has also attempted to fix the charge of ferocity on the Latian writers, but without success: at least, we cannot feel any impression of *ferocity* from the works of Lucretius, Sallust, and Juvenal, though the Abbé assures us that *their genius partakes of it*. Barbarous as our taste may appear to the sons of happier climates, we would at all times prefer the *ferocity* of those writers to the dull equanimity of many moderns.

Altogether there seems to be too much of a petty municipal spirit in this dissertation; the author is copious without richness of ideas, and correct without profit to the reader.

On the common Origin of the German, Sclavonian, or Polish and Latin Tongues; and on the Origin of the Italian Language. By the Same.—The author's minuteness of inquiry is here well-placed, and he affords us much more satisfaction than he had given in the preceding articles. He deduces the common origin of the languages mentioned in the title, together with the Greek, from an oriental language, 'whether it be called Scythian, Armenian, Phrygian, or Chaldean and Hebraic.' The instances of resemblance are numerous and striking: but it is impossible to analyse a paper which consists entirely of detached facts. The whole forms a respectable monument of the writer's industry and ingenuity.

M. ERMAN continues his memoirs on *Literary Blunders*, and again treats *of their Influence on History*. He has here enlivened his dissertation with references to more interesting transactions, than those with which he had formerly occupied himself.

The Trojan Horse is the first subject which the author undertakes. He supposes it to have been a battering engine, which took its name from the figure of its head, as the Battering Ram did afterward: but in this idea we cannot coincide with him. There is no reason for believing that this mode of attack was known, even in the time of Homer. The account given by Palæphatus is much more plausible. He informs us that a machine resembling a horse, but higher than the gates of the city, was built by the Greeks, and that Sinon was bribed to persuade the Trojans that their safety depended on securing it within their walls. To introduce this colossal figure, the gates were thrown down; and an easy entrance was thus afforded to the Grecian troops, who lay in Ambush near the town. M. ERMAN does not seem to have been acquainted with this explanation, which comes very near to the fiction of Virgil.

The tub of Diogenes is here supposed to have been a miserable hovel: but how does this agree with the story of his rolling it about the hill Cranium? Lucian and Diogenes Laertius must be allowed to have understood Greek, and they concur in that fact. Perhaps M. ERMAN will tell us, that those authors alluded to his frequent change of lodgings.

On other points, the writer is more successful. He interprets judiciously the words in the New Testament, which are commonly supposed to denote that the Holy Ghost descended in the form of a dove on our Saviour. He imagines that the spirit

spirit descended like the motion of a dove. The explanation of the mistake of *doves*, πελειαι, for *old women*, πολιαι, who were the real organs of the oracle at Dodona, shews the incessant tendency of mankind to the marvellous.

We pass over several other articles, in which various explanations of historical facts are deduced in a similar way. The famous history of the pied piper of Hameln is cleared up, in this writer's manner: but, as a matter of amusement, we prefer the old demonological story to his narration.

In the subsequent memoir, M. ERMAN proceeds to shew *the influence of Literary Blunders on Geography*. We observe nothing important on this part of the subject.

The succeeding dissertation, by M. DE CHAMBRIER, *on the Prize-Question of the Class of Belles-Lettres in* 1772, will prove still less interesting to readers in general: it proposes to determine the causes which led to the establishment of the Prussian monarchy. This adulatory theme seems to have provoked few or no candidates. M. DE CHAMBRIER, however, has undertaken a part of it, and has gone through his task with tolerable success.

On Historical Problems, and the Methods of resolving them; applied to the Solution of that which regards the Man with the Iron-Mask. By the Same. We meet with nothing that deserves particular notice, in the introductory observations in this paper. The man with the Iron-mask is supposed to have been the Count *Mathioli*, Minister of the Duke of Mantua; and it is conjectured that his crime consisted in divulging a treaty for the delivery of Casal (in Lombardy) to the French, in 1679. The opinion is at least more plausible than several others which have been advanced on this inscrutable subject.

The Inquiries concerning the Possessions of the Royal House of Prussia, &c. by the Chevalier DE VERDY DU VERNOIS, are strangely introduced, like the foregoing prize-question, in the Belles-Lettres class. Every thing that approaches towards the concerns of the court, we suppose, is intimately connected, at Berlin, with literature and philosophy.

Considerations on the Duties and the Rights of Men of Letters in Civil Society. By M. DE GOYON. These remarks might have been rendered very brief, if it had pleased the Essayist; for, in the second page of his research, he asks himself formally the question; What are the duties and the privileges of men of letters? and he answereth and sayeth, that utility ought to be their object, and utility the measure of their reward. This reminds us of the Clown's answer, in Shakspeare *, which

* 'All's well that ends well.'

" serves

"serves all men.—It is like a barber's chair, that fits all buttocks, the pin-buttock, the quatch-buttock, the brawn-buttock, or any buttock."—Universal as it is, however, it would not serve this author's turn; and he has occupied seventeen pages more in shewing how literary men may render themselves useful.—The question, What are their rights and privileges? he reserves, alas! for another discussion.

from p. 516.
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Experimental Philosophy.

Observations on some Accidents in the Course of Rivers and Torrents. By M. Jean Trembley.—This paper relates principally to some accidental circumstances attending the course of the river Rhone at Geneva, which have chiefly a local interest.

Memoir on the different Species of Tragacanth. By M. Charles Louis Willdenow. Translated from the German.—The gum tragacanth is gathered from certain shrubs by the shepherds of Mount Ida, and its exportation forms a considerable branch of the commerce of Candia, or the antient Crete. M. Willdenow gives copious botanical descriptions of thirteen species belonging to the genus *astragalus*, of which three are new. This dry enumeration is elucidated by engravings of the principal species.

On the Species of Carex *which grow spontaneously in the Environs of Berlin.* By the Same. Translated from the German.—The *carex* is a native of cold or temperate climates, and for the most part loves humid situations. Cattle reject its hard spiry leaves. The Laplanders collect the *carex acuta*, beat it, and stuff their shoes with it, to defend their feet against the winter's cold and the summer's heats. The same bent grass is employed with reeds, in some provinces of Prussia, to cover the houses of the peasants. M. Willdenow gives a catalogue, with botanic descriptions, of 37 species which grow in the vicinity of Berlin. A number of incidental remarks also occur, with several engravings.

Mathematics.

Researches on the Linear Differential Equations of the second Order. By M. Jean Trembley.—This is one of a series of dissertations on differential equations. M. Trembley is very successfully employed in simplifying and improving the methods of integration, taught by *Euler* and others.

Researches on a Question relative to the Calculation of Probabilities. By the Same.—The question was suggested by a problem which appeared in the second volume of *Euler*'s Analytical *Opuscules*, printed at Petersburg in 1785. This was founded on the lottery at Genoa, afterward imitated at Manheim,

heim, Paris, Berlin, and other cities of Europe;—in which, from 90 tickets marked with the successive numbers, 5 were to be drawn at certain epochs. M. TREMBLEY gives a solution more general and direct than that of *Euler*.

Researches on Continued Fractions. By the Same.—*Continued Fractions*, an elegant extension of arithmetical notation, were invented about the same period with Serieses, and form a branch of analysis certainly more curious, and scarcely of inferior utility. The honour of their discovery belongs exclusively to England; yet in this country (*proh pudor!*) they have for upwards of a century been totally neglected. The great analysts of the continent, however, have not deemed it unworthy of their genius to study *Continued Fractions* with indefatigable perseverance; and in their hands the doctrine and application have acquired a vast expansion. In the present dissertation, M. TREMBLEY reviews a number of beautiful theorems given on that subject by *Euler*, *La Grange*, and *Lambert*; and by a judicious application of the method of induction, he obtains in most cases easier investigations. It would not be difficult to give some idea of the spirit of his procedure:—suppose the successive sums be found of one, two, three, four, or more terms of a Continued Fraction, from which will be obtained their alternate increments and decrements; then the first term, with those differences annexed, will form an equal reciprocating series, of which the law of progression will in general be easily perceived. By reversing the process, a series may be converted into a continued fraction; and to denote the root of a quantity by a continued fraction, we have only, by means of the binomial theorem, previously to express its value in a series.

On Numerical Pyramids. By M. BURJA.—A subject of some curiosity, suggested by the practice of cannoneers in piling their balls.

Considerations on a singular Genesis of Curve Lines. By the Same.—M. BURJA supposes an inflexible rod passing through a ring, to trace a given curve by one of its ends; and the problem is to find the curve described by the other. The properties of these generated curves are neither striking nor elegant.

Observations on the Distribution of nebulous Stars and Clusters in the Firmament. By M. BODE. *Translated from the German.* We are now acquainted with 2,120 nebulous stars, chiefly owing to the assiduous labours of Dr. Herschel. The metaphysical *Kant* and the philosophical *Lambert*, nearly about the same time, yet without communication, published some ingenious and luminous ideas respecting the construction of the heavens. They shewed that the stars were not equally diffused through space, but ranged in parallel planes; forming, as it were, stratified systems. Hence, by perspective illusion, would result

result the appearance of the milky way. Dr. Herschel, more fortunate as an observer than judicious as a scientific inquirer, seems to have reverted from these sublime conceptions. M. Bode adheres to the general views of *Kant* and *Lambert*, which he corroborates and extends by some nice remarks. The subject is peculiarly fitted to swell the mind with noble emotions; and to lift us awhile above the petty concerns, the restless intrigues, and the miserable contentions, which occupy and torment the inhabitants of this speck of earth.

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See also p. 516.

Art. XI. *Annales de Chimie; i. e.* Chemical Annals, Nos. 99—103. 8vo. Paris. 1800.

In this series of numbers, the bad or indifferent papers, abstracts of publications, and memoirs reprinted from popular works, together with discussions of local interest, occupy a large space. There are, however, productions which bespeak the hand of the master.

Reflections on the Reforms required in the French Pharmacopœias. By M. La Grange.—These remarks, which will not interest our readers, fill much of Nos. 99 and 100.

On the Water of the Amnios of Woman, and the Cow. By M. M. Vauquelin and Buniva.—The human female liquor turns tincture of violets green, and at the same time slightly reddens tincture of turnsole. Not willing to admit the paradox of a free alkali and acid, these authors express a doubt as to the presence of the latter; and, if no acid be found, we have a compound alkaline liquor that so far agrees with acids.

In the vaccine liquor, a peculiar acid was discovered.

Memoir in which it is inquired whether Azote be a simple Substance or a Compound. By Dr. Girtanner.—This loose memoir occupies 40 pages; and it is very seldom that the pages of this work have been so unworthily filled. The paper has drawn some remarks from M. Berthollet in a subsequent number (103), in which it is proved, contrary to Dr. Girtanner's fundamental position, that water, boiled in vessels impenetrable to the air, yields no azote; and, on the whole, there appears no foundation for the opinion that azote consists of hydrogen and oxygen.—M. *Humboldt*'s assertion that simple earths absorb oxygen is examined and refuted; so that this adventurous philosopher may be losing credit in Europe faster than he is acquiring facts in America; especially if, as these Annals assure us, that ingenious experimenter Dr. *Pfaff* has shewn that none of those curious facts relative to Galvanism, of which we formerly gave some account, are worthy of dependance.

Memoir

Memoir on the Nature of the colouring Principle of Lapis Lazuli. By M. GUYTON.—This able chemist shews that the colouring principle of this elegant fossil is sulfure (sulphuret) of iron. If sulphuret of iron be prepared, and nitrous acid be poured on in sufficient quantity, and the filtered liquor be so diluted that the excess of acid shall not precipitate the sulphurated hydrogen that is added, precisely those phænomena take place which the colouring matter of *lapis lazuli* presents, when similarly treated.

Comparative Analysis of the Bones of Man and other Animals. By M. MERAT GAILLOT.—This paper is more useful and satisfactory than brilliant. Human bones, those of the calf, ivory, and viper's bones, yield either nearly or not quite one quarter of their weight; and these much exceed all the other bones tried.

In the *Extract of a Letter of M.* HUPPEL-LACHENAYE, *of Guadaloupe*, are contained mention and attestations of a process for extracting sugar, by which the product is almost doubled. No particulars, as may be supposed, are given. The following sentence surely will be contradicted, as soon as the accusation is made known to those whom it may concern. 'I have discovered how the circulation is carried on in vegetables. It is happy for me that my wife saved from the pillage of my house an excellent microscope of *Delabarre*, which served me in these researches. All my other instruments were mutilated by the English.'

Notice of the Presence of Malate of Lime in the Houseleek. By M. VAUQUELIN.—The author says that this acid may be more advantageously extracted from the houseleek than from the apple. There is sugar enough in the juice to yield fermented liquor; and by evaporation after having separated the malate of lime, a syrup, exactly like that of apples, is obtained. The writer suspects that the *sedums*, and similar plants, contain malate of lime.

M. TROMMSDORF mentions the discovery of a new earth, in the beryl of Georgien-Stadt.

On Glass of Antimony. By M. VAUQUELIN.—It is here shewn that glass of antimony contains from 9 to 12 parts in 100 of silex. This is soluble in acids by the intervention of the metallic oxyd, and embarrasses the crystallization by taking on a gelatinous form. In consequence, M. VAUQUELIN advises to dissolve, in cream of tartar, as much glass of antimony as possible; to filtre while boiling; to evaporate to dryness; to re-dissolve in boiling water; and to crystallize. We think that we recollect this recipe in a modern medical collection:

but the author of the recipe did not give, and probably did not know, the rationale of the process.

Note on the Preparation of Muriatic Æther. By M. VAN MONS. A very ingenious process is here described. Alcohol, impregnated with marine acid gas, is distilled off manganese; and some alkali is put into the receiver, and into bottles of *Woulfe's* apparatus. This last precaution is used to prevent the superfluous oxymuriatic acid from converting the formed æther into oil.

Researches into the Composition of Enamel. By M. C. CLOUET. Although we do not pretend to criticise practical papers on enamelling, yet we shall venture to recommend these researches, which are very particular, to the notice of our artists.

Memoir on the Manner of extracting and preparing Peat in the Provinces of Holland and Utrecht. By M. DEJEAN.—This paper, consisting of 45 pages, and which we could not make intelligible without the 12 figures which illustrate it, should be translated, and circulated in those districts of Great Britain and Ireland which depend on peat for their fuel. The intelligent industry and large experience of the Dutch always create a prejudice in favour of their practices.

Papers on Æther. By M. M. LAUDET, DABIT, VAUQUELIN, and FOURCROY.—These are controversial papers relative to the theory of M. M. VAUQUELIN and FOURCROY concerning æther. The most striking fact which they contain is that, by distilling manganese, sulfuric acid, and alcohol, a new compound is obtained. It makes a difference whether the distillation be immediately performed, or the materials be left together for a time. The product contains, according to M. M. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN, less hydrogen, but more oxygen and carbone than ordinary æther.

Description of an Hygrometer and a Photometer. By Mr. JOHN LESLIE, of Largo, in Fifeshire, North Britain.—These beautiful inventions reflect great credit on the genius and accuracy of Mr. Leslie.

M. VAUQUELIN's *Reports of a Miscellaneous Memoir of M.* PROUST.—To obtain *tannin* pure, a solution of carbonate of potash is to be poured into infusion of galls. The precipitate is to be washed moderately with *cold* water. The alkali precipitates the *tannin* by depriving it of its dissolving water.

No ink is formed by adding infusion of galls to sulfate of iron, at its minimum of oxydation; because sulphuric acid has in this case more attraction for the iron, than the gallic acid and the tannin. The contrary is the case with the red oxyd

of iron.—M. PROUST prefers, for durability and beauty, ink made of the solution of iron in infusion of galls.—Different inks have different shades, because the sulfate of iron, of which they are composed, varies so much: but when they are once exposed on paper, the air brings all nearly to the same level.

M. PROUST establishes that the red matter, occurring in the distillation of phosphorus, is carbone of phosphorus. He also shews that the odour of hydrogen, generated during the solution of some sorts of cast iron in acids, probably comes from an essential oil. Indeed, if a large quantity (15 pounds) of dark grey pig iron be dissolved in sulphuric or muriatic acid, drops of oil will be seen on the water of the receiver. This again shews that the elements of oil are capable of combining in the mineral kingdom.

The native iron of Peru proves to be an alloy of iron and nickel; an alloy which, M. PROUST says, will have many advantages over iron; and particularly that of not rusting.—What a prospect for the arts!

The author concludes, from an experiment on broth-making, that, in order to extract all the nourishment, the meat should be divided into small pieces. However little this fact has been regarded in private families, it has of late been well understood in this country.

M. ROBIN relates an accident at a powder-mill, which seems (as he thinks) to shew the spontaneous accension of charcoal. It has gone through the processes previous to pulverization, and was pounded without being observed to be hotter than usual.

M. HUMBOLDT *to* M. FOURCROY.—This rapid *physician* here speaks of immense labours in astronomy, chemistry, botany, and every branch of natural history; in short, every branch of physics: yet he has been only seven months in South America, with one companion.

'We have (says he) passed five months in the interior of New Andalusia, and upon the coasts of Paria, where we experienced most violent earthquakes. Part of these countries is occupied by the wild Indians, and other parts have not been cultivated above five or six years. How shall I paint to you the majesty of the vegetation, the variety of animals, the superb plumage of the birds, the apes, the tigers, and the hideous aspect of the crocodiles, with which the rivers abound, and which are above 30 feet long.'

We shall in course attend to the subsequent numbers of this work, as they reach us, in our next Appendix.

Bed...s.

ART.

ART. XII. *Les Helvétiens*, &c., *i. e.* The Helvetians, in eight Cantos, with historical Notes. By CHARLES FRANCIS-PHILIBERT MASSON, French Citizen. 12mo. pp. 350. Paris. 1799.

PARTS of this work have been read and much extolled at the Institute: where the principles of the author seem more likely to have been approved, than the poetry. The whole poem is designed as an eloge on the Swiss, their heroism in conflicts with the Duke of Burgundy, and their early acquisition of liberty: but how can the French presume to talk of liberty, and particularly that of the Swiss, at the very period when it has been so totally wrested from them by Gallic fraternization? Is there a state in Europe more dependent, plundered, and enslaved, than the Thirteen Cantons? the inhabitants of which have not only been despoiled of their independence and property, by these panegyrists of liberty, but of all kinds of free agency, and all choice of civil magistrates. Even the constitution which the French pretended to give them, on the first invasion of their country, has been abolished, and a new commission has been sent to them by the Chief Consul; who has declared that he will acknowlege no other power in Swisserland superior to this commission, which he will support against all factions. The Swiss have now an immense army quartered on them; and it must not only be supplied with provisions and forage, but with recruits from their barren mountains: which, in their best days of peace and liberty, were not sufficiently productive to feed the native inhabitants.

The poetical merit of this production has no high pretensions; and its typography is so small that it is difficult to read it without being gifted with patience and good eyes. The bard's panegyrist in the Institute confesses that his poem participates of the roughness of the mountains which he celebrates: but then it breathes *fierté*, pride, and fierceness, fitted for the revolutionary spirit which reigned at the time when it was written. Its chief merit, in the eyes of Frenchmen, must be that of vociferating *Liberty, Liberty!* always Liberty. If they sing of liberty now in Swisserland, it must be with the same energy as our ballad singers in the streets pour forth their effusions of love and tenderness, with an empty stomach:— "I'll sing to my *lovier* all night and all day," &c.

At the moment of battle, the Helvetian army prostrates itself in the sight of the enemy, to implore victory; then rising, and filling the air with the terrible cry of *Liberty* which alarmed all nature:—

> 'Trembled the Earth; to Heav'n the shouts arise;
> While echo from the Alps to Jura flies - - -

The

The voice of LIBERTY was heard around,
Each hill and valley multiplied the sound;
The mountain pines all wave in wild affright;
The torrent's fall, and screaming Eagle's flight,
Resounding rocks—all with each other vie,
And seem of LIBERTY to join the cry.'

The author is indeed an enthusiatic republican: consequently, the Helvetians are always right, and every sovereign prince is in the wrong. It has however escaped him in the notes, that the Swiss had seized on the city and castle of Granson, which belonged to *Louis de Chalm*, on the Lake of Neufchâtel; and had dispossessed *d'Orbe* of his territories, in the Pais de Vaud. It is unlucky for the poet, that the French *citizens* have disfranchised these virtuous Swiss, and are the very ambitious tyrants whom the author means to flatter under far different appellations, by his abuse of former invaders and conquerors.—The regicidal doctrine is still preached in these effusions:

'The world's misfortune is the work of kings!
May he who first the diadem assum'd
To deepest hell eternally be doom'd!'

Indeed, kings, religion, and the priesthood, are repeatedly recommended to destruction.

The author's contempt and abhorrence of the English are constantly expressed, with all the powers of his pen:

'A language insolent the English hold,
And, fat by our misfortunes—count their gold.

'Their king Edward (the IVth) having landed in France with an army, to support his brother-in-law, the Duke of Burgundy, and to attack Louis the XIth, who had assisted Warwick and Henry, competitors with Edward for the throne; the French *tyrant* was such a *coward* that he did not dare to defend himself. He negotiated a truce, which he bought dearly of Edward and his courtiers. He also sent a great quantity of wine, as a present to the English army, with which they got drunk; laughing at the French who were indignant at the cowardice of their king. During this debauch, the army of Charles (the bold, D. of Burgundy), which Edward had for some days expected, arrived; and the Duke, enraged at finding the truce concluded, tried every means to break it. An Englishman, admiring the exact order and discipline with which the Burgundians filed off, exclaimed: *Ah! if we had but known that we had such allies, we should not so easily have granted a peace!* upon which a Frenchman said: *you were so eager to get home, that a present of* 600 *pipes of wine, and the pension which the king gives you, were sufficient to send you back to England. Do you call*, replied the angry Englishman, *the money which your king gives us a Pension? 'tis a Tribute.*'

'The courtiers of Louis XI. could revenge these humiliations only by laughing at the drunkenness and gluttony of the English. *Philip de Comines* paints the court of Edward as truly Bacchanalian.—Nothing can better describe the scandalous distrust of princes, especially that of Louis, than their manner of conducting their interviews. When the *tyrant* wished for a conference with Edward, the D. of Burgundy, the Constable St. Pol, and even with his own brother, he had a bridge constructed on a river; and on the middle of this bridge was erected a strong grate, through which they spoke. *Comines* has expressed this in strong terms: "In the middle of the bridge were made strong wooden bars *like those of a lion's cage*:"—precisely such as are necessary in menageries, to prevent wild beasts from tearing each other to pieces. *Tyrants know their kind.*'

The relation which the author gives of the murder of the ambassadors, whom the Swiss sent to the D. of Burgundy to solicit peace, is confessed not to be an historical fact: 'but, (says he, in a note) when by the advice of a friend I was about to cancel this relation, comes the news of the murder of the French ambassadors at Rastadt; and I therefore restored the passage, since facts could surpass imagination.'

'It may be imagined (says the elegant bard, elsewhere) that in speaking of two English officers, I *invented* the names of *Abrigand* and *Cohin*, so like *brigand* and *Coquin*, thief and rascal: but I can assure the reader that I found these names in *Comines*, who frequently disfigures foreign appellatives. However, these perfectly fit the English.'

The English are often dragged into this poem for the sake of abusing them, and calling them drunkards, gluttons, and barbarians. On the contrary, what an *eloge* does the writer pass on his countrymen; they are 'always the friends of liberty, of the people, and of human kind!'

'If from a generous spirit the French, even under their kings, always fought on the side of the people; the English, from a diabolical disposition, have always been on the side of tyranny.'

This bard may, however, be asked whether Qu. Elizabeth did not assist the Dutch *people* against the Spaniards; and the French Hugonots against Charles IX. and Henry III.; and whether, at the revocation of the edict of Nantz, the English did not save the fugitive Calvinists from the tyranny of Louis XIV.; as they have since rescued the *people* of all religions, from the daggers of the Jacobins?

If *invention* be a qualification of the first necessity for a poet, Citizen Masson is the most inspired bard of his country: but, though an epic poet may invent what he pleases respecting a nation which no longer exists, and when conjecture only can dispute his facts; a people who still subsist, and are able to fight

fight their own battles, will be inclined to controvert assertions which defame and blacken their national character. Homer, though a Greek, allowed merit and virtue to *some* of the Trojans: but the present Gallic bard never mentions either an Englishman or his country without calumniating both. D.r B...y.

ART. XIII. *Traité des Membranes en général*, &c.; *i. e.* A Treatise on Membranes in general, and on certain Membranes in particular. By XAV. BICHAT. 8vo. pp. 326. Paris. 1800. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 6s. sewed.

THE subject of this treatise is certainly very important, but we doubt whether the English reader will find much novelty in the present performance. The author, for example, divides membranes into three classes, *fibro-serous*, *sero-mucous*, and *fibro-mucous*: but he does not seem to be at all acquainted with the great distinction which English anatomists have traced between the simple and the reflected membranes; though the character of their respective diseases appears to depend more on this, than on any other line of difference. If we rightly understand him (p. 27, 28.) he even denies the existence of the *Rete Mucosum*; at least he speaks very doubtfully of it. In our anatomical schools, this membrane is a common subject of demonstration. He appears, however, to be well acquainted with the minute anatomy of the membranes in general; and if he had been satisfied with a more simple arrangement, he would have inspired his readers (on this side of the channel, at least) with more respect for his attainments.

M. BICHAT is disposed, from some experiments which are not very conclusive, to doubt the effect ascribed by some of our physiologists to the action of oxygen on the blood. His trials certainly do not invalidate the facts stated by Dr. Goodwin on this subject.—The French physiological school seems to be still balancing between the old and new opinions, but without an accurate notion of the latter. Witness the following remarks: (p. 119.)

'May not an exact parallel be established, 1st, between the adhesion of the serous membranes which results from inflammation, and that of the re-union of wounds by the first intention? Are not these adhesions, in both cases, the effect of inflammation in its first period? 2. between the purulent exsudation of these membranes, and the suppuration of wounds not re-united? Is not each the effect of the second period of inflammation? If the identity of these phænomena be acknowleged, does it not depend on the identity of structure of the serous membranes, and of the cellular substance *which is the essential agent of the re-union and suppuration of wounds?*'

The English student, who is acquainted with the appropriate terms of *adhesive inflammation*, and *inflammatory exsudation*, will smile at the manner in which M. BICHAT'S *conjectures* are announced; while the clause, which we have distinguished by italics, proves that the author is unacquainted with the modern doctrine of suppuration, the acknowleged agents of which are the arteries and absorbents.

We must not be understood to condemn this publication, notwithstanding the objections which we have made to some of its parts: for it is useful to consider a subject of importance under every point of view; and we confess that the general doctrine of the membranes has not been systematically treated in this country, with the care which it deserves. We must add, however, that the very arbitrary mode of arrangement which the present author has adopted, the omission of his authorities for many facts stated, and the too superficial summary of the properties and diseases of the membranes described, render this work of little importance to practitioners. It may be useful to students; who require, in many cases, even defective views of the edifice of truth, to familiarize them with some of its component parts.

Fer.

ART. XIV. *Paris pendant l'Année* 1800; *i. e.* Paris, during the Year 1800. By M. PELTIER. 8vo.

THE XXVIth volume of this work commences with No. CC. and the transactions of the National Institute furnish the first article; by which it appears that the Institute of Egypt is united with that of Paris, and that the Egyptian members who shall return to France will be admitted into the National Institute, *ad eundem*.—We have next an inedited epistle by *Gresset*, addressed to the Chevalier *Chauvelin* in 1741, on the election of an abbot. From the complection of this poem, we may suppose that it would not have been published during the *ancien regime*. It is extremely severe on the priesthood; which circumstance probably has now brought it to light.

A character of *Fénélon*, by M. *d'Aguesseau*, is full of antitheses and contradictions; through which, however, the great and good man still appears.

A severe Philippic against Eloquence is inserted from the *Journal de Paris*, to which many will readily subscribe; followed by an answer from the *Journal of Debates and Decrees*, which may, perhaps, invalidate some of the charges against that art which Socrates emphatically called *the art of deceiving*; by disguising facts, and making black appear white.

On

On Female Writers.—On M. de Malesherbes, and the absurdity of bringing this excellent philosopher and virtuous character on the stage, in a ballad farce; when the same mob, which rejoiced at his being guillotined, wept over his virtues celebrated in song; enforcing by music the eulogy of a man who hated music; and who jocosely said, not long before his death: "I begin to think that music has more effect on me than formerly: it now puts me to sleep."

Of Military Influence in France. In this short discourse, it is owned that military virtue is the only virtue required by the nation from their generals. It is not charity, but courage, that "covers a multitude of their sins." Let a chief but manifest military prowess, and the nation will give him every other virtue, gratis.

A short *Eloge of M. Guys*, author of the Literary Voyage into Greece, who died lately at Zante, one of the islands of the Ionian Sea, at the age of 79.

The rest of this Number is filled chiefly with *Political Events*, which, as before, we shall pass unnoticed.

No. CCI. *Miscellaneous Literature.—On the Neutrality of Prussia.* This is the analysis of a well-written tract, in which the interests and resources of that kingdom are detailed, with the appearance of candour and a knowlege of the subject. The exhausted state of France is likewise described, perhaps accurately, at the time when this book was written: but the changes which have happened since in the affairs of France, by the repossession of Italy, and of a large part of Germany, have greatly altered the thesis. The French armies now find subsistence and pay in the enemy's country; which, before the opening of the present campaign, they were obliged to seek at home. The author seems desirous of re-establishing monarchy in France, for the peace of the rest of Europe; and he calls on Prussia to assist in the execution of a plan which includes the ideas which the great *Sully* and his incomparable master had conceived, concerning the division of Europe, *mutatis mutandis*, with such changes as the present order of things shall require. The outline of this participation of power is—to unite the Netherlands with Holland, and establish a monarchy for the House of Orange; to create for the House of Savoy a powerful state in Italy; and, with a few exceptions, to reduce Europe into eleven sovereignties, of which Portugal would be the least important. Turkey is out of the question. M. Peltier has devoted 24 pages to extracts from and reflections on this work.

An article of some length next occurs, respecting a work which will not be very interesting to English readers, intitled:

"*Travels to the Department of Finisterre*, in 1794 *and* 1795;" treating of the police, peculiar customs, and antiquities of that province. A wild and indefensible idea concerning the Druids is suggested in this work.

The *Poetry* of this Number presents only a short extract from the Abbé *Delille*'s poem *on Misfortune and Pity;* and a Romance on Friendship, by the elder *Segur*. The lines inserted from the Abbé *Delille* are encomiastic on *M. le Vicomte de Marin*, the celebrated dilettante performer on the harp and violin, who has frequently devoted his extraordinary talents to the relief of his distressed emigrant countrymen.

A masterly *Parallel between the Painters, Poussin and David;* with a critique on their several pictures of the Rape of the Sabines.

The *Theatres* of Paris afford nothing but the analysis of unfortunate new Pieces. In the *Necrology*, or Obituary, we have the death of General *Montalembert*, of the Chancellor *de l'Hôpital*, and of *Mirabeau*. The contrast between the worthy Chancellor and the profligate *Mirabeau* is very striking. France seems to have come to her senses sufficiently to see the vices and deformities of this character, and to suffer them to be drawn at full length.

The funeral oration which the Archbishop of Narbonne pronounced at the French chapel in King's-street, Portman-square, in memory of the Princess Adelaide of France, who died at Trieste Feb. 27, 1800, is inserted at full length; as is

The Will of the late Emperor of China, Kang-Hy *. This is a curious acquisition, brought to Europe from China, by Dr. *Massé*, a physician, who sailed for China in 1790, in search of natural history. It was translated into French by M. *Grammont*, a learned missionary, resident at Pekin. We are sorry not to be able to spare room for an English translation of the last address of this accomplished and venerable monarch, to his 233 millions of subjects, at 90 years of age, and in the 61st year of his reign! The wisdom, the morality, and even the piety of this patriotic prince are as extraordinary as his longevity.

On the Antiquities of Egypt, in a letter from General *Dugua*, member of the Egyptian Institute, to Dr. *Desgenettes*, chief physician of the army at Grand Cairo. We expected more information from this letter than we found. We seem to have read, or heard of, elsewhere, all that this epistle tells us; except what is said of the remains of a Colossal figure 45 feet high, mentioned by Herodotus as placed at one of the en-

* He is called *Chen-Lung* by Sir George Staunton.

trances

trances of the Temple of Vulcan, at Memphis, by Sesostris. One of the hands of this figure, Citizen *Coutelle* ordered to be carried off.

No. CCII. was published (April 30th) in haste, and incomplete, in order to notice as soon as possible a celebrated pamphlet which had appeared at Paris, intitled, *Les Adieux à Bonaparte* (*Farewell to Bonaparte*), from which great effects were expected by the Royalists. Some account of a translation of this pamphlet has already been given in our Review for August, p. 439.

The second part of this Number contains extracts from the Paris papers, concerning the interior regulations of the chief Consul in establishing his own *constitution*, as it is called; in which great encouragement is given to patriots to die for their country in the field of battle; promising them very handsome monuments and memorials in the capital of each department to which they may have belonged.

Complaints from the Helvetic Republic, of the anarchy, discord, oppression, pillage, misery, and famine, in which French fraternity has involved the inhabitants of Swisserland.

Analysis of the 59 *Papers relative to the Retreat of the French Army from Egypt*, which passed between General Kleber, the Porte, and Sir Sidney Smith. Though this article occupies more than 20 pages of the present Number, the progress and failure of this business are still in want of explanation.

Address to the Emigrants, on the expediency of their returning to France during the present order of things.

Coronation of the new Pope, Pius VII. at Venice; with the Oration pronounced by the Pontiff himself in a secret Consistory on the occasion.

Literary Miscellanies. The Repast, or Four Parts of a Day, a Poem; of which M. PELTIER has only inserted the different kinds of breakfast to which the several ranks in France are accustomed. These are minutely and well described.

On a complete Edition of the Works of Citizen Sieyes being advertised. Expectation is not much stimulated by these reflections on the promised publication. We are told that it will chiefly consist of political pamphlets, ill written, during the commencement of the Revolution, and far inferior to the writer's reputation for political metaphysics.

No. CCIII. *Literary Miscellanies. The Four Satires, or the End of the Eighteenth Century, by Joseph Despaze.* This author, by affixing his name to poems written in the service of morality, found it a service of danger. from which he narrowly escaped with his life. The persons satirized called him to account, and insisted on his signing a recantation: but he pre-

ferred fighting; and in the conflict, in the *Bois de Boulogne*, he was dangerously wounded. We are unable to judge of the justice of his satire: but in the extracts here given we find some good lines. M. *Despaze* has lately been appointed Secretary at War, by the influence of *Carnot*, whose life he had saved by concealing him on the 18th Fructidor; and whom, after his escape into Germany, he enabled to subsist without having recourse to the government of that country for assistance as an emigrant.

The present Age,—another satire, in which the massacres occasioned by the Revolution are described with due horror. *Anecdotes concerning Fontenelle and the Chevalier Bayard. Festival at Versailles in May* 1661. *Institution of the Floral Games*, 1324; *Translation of Milton's Latin Verses to Christina Queen of Sweden, by the Abbé Delille. African Voyages. New Voyage of Discovery to the South Seas by order of Bonaparte.* A new comic opera, written by *Dupaty* and set by *Tarchi*, has been well received. A serious opera, intitled *Hecuba*, has failed.

On the late M. Mallet Du Pan. This political writer much offended M. PELTIER and his former friends, almost in his last moments, by his Eulogium on *Bonaparte*. *Mallet Du Pan* was a native of Geneva, consequently a republican, and what the French call a *Frondeur*, or discontented man. He was a friend to the revolution in the beginning, but enlisted under the banner of the *Constitutionalists*, to which party he has constantly adhered ever since. A constitutionalist would have a king: but with powers so limited as to be governed by a *tiers-etat*; to be totally unsupported by nobility and clergy; and with no intermediate power between him and a mob. That such a king's head would be soon under the influence of the *guillotine* cannot be doubted. Genuine republics, such as those of Greece and Rome, would be more desirable to monarchy-men than such a revolutionary government as the *Girondists* aspired to establish. Once a Jacobin, always a Jacobin; and once a constitutionalist, always a constitutionalist. Not one of the revolutionary factions has ever seen its own errors, however fatal they may have been to itself; nor will the inventor or propagator of any one *systême* peaceably submit to the establishment of any other.—We seldom interfere with the political opinions of M. PELTIER: but here they are so prominent, that we could not help stumbling over them.

Fragments of the IVth Book of the Eneid, translated by the Abbé Delille. There are some admirable lines in this citation: but the Abbé disavows at least thirty of the fourscore verses which M. PELTIER copied from a French Journal.

No.

No. CCIV. A poem of some length and considerable merit, on the subject of *Hope*, is the first article in this Number. It is signed M. L. C. *Anglais*. If written by an Englishman, it is a surprizing performance: many of the lines, as well as sentiments, are admirable; and neither the genius of the language, nor the laws of French versification, (as far as we are able to judge,) have been violated.

Time and Destiny, an ingenious tale, by the elder *Segur*, is the 2d article.

Punning seems to have been much in fashion at Paris, of late. A whole farce has been given there last year *en Calembourgs*. Proper names are the most open, in all countries, to this persecution. Though it seldom happens that the quibbling humour of a pun can be transfused into another language, there have been two lately in circulation, of which M. PELTIER has kindly given us the history; and if any of our readers ever condescend to amuse themselves as punsters, it will, perhaps, be some comfort to them to know that their infirmity is not without example, even in the *Great Nation*. Of the music of the opera of *Hecuba*, pillaged from all quarters of the musical world, it has been said by wags, that, if the words were written by *Milcent* (a thousand hundred), the music was by *cent mille* (a hundred thousand).

The drama called the *Abbé de l'Epée*, written by *Bouilli*, succeeded at Paris merely by the extraordinary talents of *Monvel*, an actor who performed the principal part; and whose fire and intelligence made amends for the coldness and insipidity of the piece. When it was first represented at Thoulouse by different actors, on one of them pompously giving out a second time the drama of Citizen *Bouilli*: "Citizen (cries a punster in the pit) treat us with *Racines* as much as you please, and we'll deny ourselves the *Bouilli*." *Racine* is a root, as well as the name of the best French tragic poet; and *Bouilli* is boiled beef, as well as the name of a despicable dramatist.

Madame des Houlieres at Brussels, a drama, has been coldly received at Paris. M. P. has given a good critique on this piece, which is founded on the story of the great *Condé*'s unruly passion for this celebrated female wit, the wife of an officer. The lady, being obstinately virtuous, is imprisoned by her lover, and rescued by the contrivance of her husband, and one of his domestics: but there are so many improbabilities in the fable of this play, and all the characters (*except the Prince*) are *so* good, in the German style, that it might well pass for a production of *Kotzebue*.

A short *Eloge on the admirable Musician, Piccini, composer of the Buona Figliuola*, who died at Passy near Paris, in May last, at

* See a different opinion of this play, when noticing a translation of it, Rev. Vol. 37. p. 99.

at 72 years of age. He composed in Italy 140 works, besides those which he furnished for the French theatre. Either his conduct must have been blameable, or the public very ungrateful: for this charming composer, who had delighted the musical world with so many exquisite productions, has left a widow and five daughters, in the utmost indigence!

An Oeconomical Dinner, a dialogue, carried on with some humour, between a temperate man and an epicure. There are, it seems, houses opened at Paris for the sale of *Soupe à la Rumford*, or soup for a *luncheon* at two o'clock. The epicure, being carried to one of these by the man of temperance, is surprised at the excellence and cheapness of the soup; and he finds that for six farthings he can have a repast, that would supply the place of a tavern dinner which would cost fifteen shillings.

Biographical characters of Republican Generals: *Desaix*, *Brune*, *St. Cyr*, and *Bernadotte*; who are not flattered in these sketches.

Another eloge, somewhat highly coloured, of the extraordinary performance on the harp and violin of M. *de Morin*. He is certainly a very fine player on the violin; and on the harp he is so truly wonderful in science and execution, as to make it a new instrument: producing effects and expressions on it which were unknown before, to professors of the first class.

Some controversy next occurs, between the editor of this work and the son of the late M. *Mallet du Pan*, respecting the account of that gentleman's death which was given in a former number of this work, and which we have already noticed. (P. 536.) We shall not enter into the dispute.

Vol. XXVII. No. CCV.—*Political Memoir on the Object of the War*. The design of this laboured memoir is to depreciate *Bonaparte* and his new government, and to advise the allies to acknowlege Louis XVIII.

Farther Extracts from the four Satires; and from the *Biographical Account of French Generals*; the conclusion of *Bernadotte*'s character, and those of *Angereau*, *Hédouville*, *Férino*, and *Duhem*.

Transportation and Shipwreck of J. J. Aymé. A translation of this work has appeared, and we shall take farther notice of it.

Epigrams and literary Anecdotes. Of these we shall try to give our English readers some faint idea.

'*The transient Flame*, or *a Mistress for a Day*.

'Calista, like a faithful glass,
Each image readily receives,
And lets no sighing lover pass,
But firmly Her's his heart believes.

Yet

Yet more resembling still we see
The mirror and her heart remain;
Receiving all who bow the knee,
No one her charms can ere retain.'

'*The Friend of a Day.*

'With promises Damon his friends will e'er feed,
Exciting in all hopes delicious:
But woe to the friend who admits in his creed,
His big words and his transports factitious.
They know not how much to this patron so dear
All the laws of a shadow pertain:
Which can only be seen when the sky's bright and clear,
But, when cloudy, is sought for in vain.'

'*Epitaph for the Poet Chabossiere.*

'Here, passenger, at length entomb'd
A wretched author rests,
Who long to toil in vain was doom'd
At works the world detests.
Wert thou these works to criticize,
His frigid muse thoud'st curse:
The marble under which he lies
Is warmer than his verse.'

'*On the Poet Baour-Lormian.*

'When Baour reach'd Styx's gloomy tide,
"Be quick, I'm waited for," he loudly cried:
"Pull! pull! you lazy rascal, pull a head!"—
But Charon heeded not a word he said.—
"Make haste, I say;—I've paid the fare you levy"—
"'Tis very true, Sir—but you are *so heavy*."

No. CCVI. Account of a new publication by Mad. *de Staël*, on the subject of Literature, and its effects on Social Institutions. 2 vols. 8vo. Of this work we propose to give a review in our next Appendix.

Sequel of Cromwell's Usurpation; written manifestly to point out the road to a counter-revolution in France, similar to that which was effected in England by General Monk.

Parallel between Monk and Bonaparte. Splendid offers are thrown out to the latter, if he would imitate the former: but the chief Consul is said to have great faith in proverbs, and seems fully convinced that "a bird in the hand is worth two in the bush."

Sketch of the Lives of Generals Moreau and Macdonald.—An interesting Account of a Chinese, now at Paris.

No. CCVII. *The last Adieu to Bonaparte;* being the entire sequel of this pamphlet, which has been detailed in different Numbers of this Journal.

Revival

Revival of the *Mercure de France*, an historical, political, and literary Journal, No. 1. carried on by Messrs. *La Harpe*, *de Fontanes*, and a young Creole from St. Domingo, Citizen *Laborie*, to whom the political part is assigned. In this first Number, M. *de Fontanes* has furnished a long and well written critique on Madame *de Staël*'s new work.

There are many pleasant epigrams in this Number, on local subjects: but the following may be understood by all Europe:

'*On Mercier de Compiegne's Eloge on a Louse.*

'Take courage, my friend, in the task you've begun;
So piquant's the theme, none can e'er deem it dull;
And a work can be never, 'tis said, so well done,
As when of his subject the author is full.'

A detailed Account of the Battle of Marengo, by General *Berthier*. This is the most ample account of this fatal battle that we have read; and we have not yet seen it disputed by any friend of the allies.

No. CCVIII. The account of theatrical representations, and criticisms on dramas and actors, in this Number, would afford little amusement to English readers: since the remarks, though they may be just and interesting at Paris, would be unintelligible in London. These articles are extracted from French papers.

The author of *the Adieu to Bonaparte* has produced a new pamphlet, which he calls, "*my last Words to Bonaparte.*" Finding the chief Consul insensible to all the advantages of honour, power, and immortality, which would accrue to him in becoming a General *Monk*, this writer has bestowed on him a Philippic of the most severe and bitter kind; representing his life and actions in the blackest colours which ink could furnish. What effect this may have on a conqueror in full power, we know not: but we can scarcely imagine that it will much facilitate the restoration of the Bourbon Dynasty.

This paper is followed by a discourse of a very different complexion, by *Garat*, on the battle of Marengo; in which the black-moor is washed white, and all the military heroism and abilities of the chief Consul are painted in as vivid colours as the palette of the orator could supply.

Letter on some marginal Notes written by Voltaire, in his copy of Virgil, by *Fontanes*. Much good taste and elegant criticism are discoverable in this letter.

Letters and Reports of the Commission of Arts and Sciences, concerning the Antiquities of Upper Egypt, received since the return of *Bonaparte*, to whom the report is addressed. This report is of considerable length, and extremely curious, but not yet

yet finished: we have not room here for extracts: but, as a translation is promised, we shall speak farther on the subject hereafter, when the whole publication is before us.

Epigrams, by Authors against Authors; who may probably with equal truth say to each other, in the language of Peachum and Locket: "brother, brother, we are both in the wrong."

No. CCIX. *Antiquities of Upper Egypt continued;* a sequel to the report from the Commission of Arts to the first Consul. This report furnishes the most ample and satisfactory account of the remains of antient grandeur at present subsisting in Egypt, that has come to our knowlege since the French first landed in that country.

Dramatic Representations in eight different Theatres at Paris. These pieces all seem to be sing-song, and farciçal; and not one of the old stock plays of *Corneille, Racine, Moliere*, or *Voltaire*, is ever produced.

On the completion of *La Harpe's Course of Lectures on Literature*, Vols. 8, 9, and 10. Having at length procured a copy of this work, we shall, in our next Appendix, commence an examination of the whole.

Political Articles conclude this volume.

Dr B....y.

ART. XV. *Renouvellemens periodiques*, &c. *i. e.* On the periodical Renovations of the terrestrial Continents. By L. BERTRAND, Professor in the Academy of Geneva, &c. 8vo. pp. 363. Paris. 1799.

GEOLOGY may be denominated the poetical part of natural history. The facts which we know are too few to support our reasoning to any extent concerning the revolutions of our planet; yet they are too striking and too grand to leave the imagination at rest. Every geologist, therefore, proposes a new hypothesis in order to explain the phænomena with which we are acquainted; and, instead of the history of our globe, presents to us a poem of his own composition, which for some time amuses our curiosity, but never obtains our acquiescence.

Such has been the general tenor of geological theories; and the system proposed in the work before us is as hypothetical as any of those which have preceded it, and like them carries no conviction to the mind: but it possesses a considerable degree of merit in being free from extravagant suppositions, and in proposing scientific conjectures, instead of giving way to fanciful flights. As an observer, the author is a pupil of the Saussurean school; always cautious in his conclusions, and more attentive to remark anomalies than prone to generalize ideas. So far his book has the advantage over preceding theories; and

observations

observations thus impartially stated deserve and command a proportionately greater degree of credit. He has freely made use of the great store of important facts contained in M. *de Saussure's* travels through the Alps; and indeed the systematical ideas of M. BERTRAND begin at the point at which that celebrated philosopher concluded his labours.

M. *de Saussure* had promised to give a geological system at the end of his travels: but, after many years of arduous researches and accurate observations, he contented himself with informing the public that the result of his investigations induced him to believe that the whole of our continents had been formed under the sea, had been arranged by its action, and were left dry by a precipitate retreat of the waters. To explain the possibility of this sudden retreat of the ocean, and of the subsequent elevation of the land, which before formed its bottom, above the level of its surface, is the chief aim of M. BERTRAND in this publication.

In the first eight sections, he presents to his readers a number of facts and reflections, which tend to confirm the opinion of M. *de Saussure*. He shews that the strata, and the manner in which they are disposed, indicate the sudden retreat of the water, and the alternate immersion and emersion of continents. In the fifth section, he attacks (in our opinion, successfully,) those naturalists who maintained that the sea had changed its place by a slow and successive motion; and he points out the difficulties attending M. *de Buffon*'s hypothesis in his *Epoques de la Nature*, and the system of the change of the axis of rotation in the earth. The inclination of secondary towards the primitive mountains also affords him an argument in favour of the sudden retreat of the sea; and indeed the generality of the phænomena are greatly in favour of this opinion:—but, as a sudden removal of the waters cannot take place except in consequence of an equally sudden change of the centre of gravity in our planet, the author, in order to explain this supposed fact, avails himself (in the ninth section) of an hypothesis formerly advanced by Dr. Edmund Halley. The variation in the declination of the magnetic needle supposes an oscillatory motion in the magnetic poles, which that philosopher attempted to explain on the supposition of a magnetic nucleus inclosed and suspended in a hollow space in the centre of the earth; having a movement of rotation of its own, and an inclination of magnetic axis on its axis of rotation, somewhat different from that of the two corresponding axes of the planet. Notwithstanding the failure of the tables calculated by Dr. Halley on these suppositions, M. BERTRAND is persuaded that the existence of this internal cavity of the earth, and of its suspended nucleus, is supported not

only by the reason which led the Doctor to conjecture it, but also by the phænomena subsequently observed, respecting the horizontal inclination of the magnetic needle.

A comet has always formed a necessary part of a geological system; and M. BERTRAND has not failed to introduce one in order to effect the required change of the centre of gravity in our planet: but in this respect, as in others, the sobriety of his mind is remarkable. The comet which he produces does not break the sun, and form planets from each spark, as in M. *de Buffon*'s theory; nor is it charged with the change and new modelling of the qualities of matter, as in the geology of M. *Bertrand* of Paris*: but it is a simple comet, such as are often observed in our planetary system. It is well known that the orbits of some comets approach the side of the terrestrial orbit at such a comparatively small distance from it, that, if by chance the earth and the comet were at the same time in the corresponding arches of their orbits, the latter would exert such attraction on the former, as would occasion not only tides superior to those which are caused by the attraction of the moon, but would also displace the nucleus from the centre, remove it towards one side, and immediately change the centre of gravity of the earth. A comet in its course can exert this influence only for a few hours: but the consequences, according to the present author, must be lasting. The derangement of the seas, their removal to other parts of the globe, the immersion of the old, and the emersion of new continents, would be the natural consequence of this sudden change in the centre of terrestrial gravity. For details and explanations, objections and answers to them, we must refer to the book itself.

In the tenth and last section, the author points out the necessity of this renovation of continents, to the economy of nature. Nothing is more clearly demonstrated than continental decay, the progress of which is slow but uninterrupted; and M. BERTRAND very ably makes use of this fact, to shew that these periodical renovations, in the manner in which he supposes them to happen, are the only means of continuing life and fertility on the surface of the earth.

The formation of the continents under the ocean is an undoubted fact, which can now no longer be questioned; since every observation confirms it. That their emersion could only take place in consequence of a change in the centre of gravity of the earth, we readily believe: but whether this change happened in the manner supposed in this hypothesis will remain questionable, till stronger proofs than those here alleged are brought

* See M. R. vol. xxx. N. S. p. 566.

forwards

forwards in its support. The author himself does not wish to ascribe to these speculations a greater degree of certainty or importance than they intrinsically deserve, as may be seen in many passages of his book, and in particular at p. 294. On the whole, indeed, this production seems to announce the dawn of more auspicious days to this branch of natural history. Corrêa

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ART. XVI. *Manuel Economique des Plantes*, &c. *i. e.* An Economical Manual of Plants, or Treatise concerning those Plants which are useful in the Arts. By M. BUCHOZ. 8vo. pp. 376. Paris. 1800. Imported by Dulau and Co. London. Price 6s. sewed.

ART. XVII. *Manuel Tinctorial*, &c.; *i. e.* A Tinctorial Manual of Plants, or Treatise concerning those Plants which are useful in dying and painting. By M. BUCHOZ. 8vo. pp. 300. Paris. 1800. Imported by Dulau and Co. London. Price 6s. sewed.

M. BUCHOZ has long been known to naturalists as an indefatigable, though not always very accurate compiler. In the catalogue of his numerous productions, we find fourteen different manuals of plants; the titles of some of which may probably excite a smile from our readers; as for instance—the *Cosmetic and Odoriferous Manual*—the *Oleaginous Manual*—the *Snuffy and Sternutatory Manual*—the *Officinal and Indigenous Manual*, &c. We could, however, easily forgive the whimsicality of his title-pages, if he had better digested his materials: but the slovenliness and inaccuracy of his compositions are sometimes too glaring to be patiently borne. Though he generally follows the Linnean nomenclature, he occasionally deviates from it without warning the reader; who, taken unawares, may be easily led into error, unless he be an expert and critical botanist. For example, who could expect to find the *Lichen roccella*, a plant of so much use in dying, under the name of *Fucus verrucosus*, as it occurs at p. 76. and seq. of the Tinctorial Manual; or the *Laurus persea*, turned into a *Passiflora*, as at p. 165? The French translations of the Latin names of plants partake, in some instances, of the same inaccuracy; the *Lichen tartareus* (p. 99.) is translated by the name of *Orseille de Tartarie*.

Notwithstanding the many inaccuracies, however, of which this author is guilty, we cannot deny him the praise of having compiled books which will be useful as indexes of plants, in the different points of view pointed out by the titles. The most valuable parts of the two manuals now before us consist of four dissertations by Linné, formerly published in the *Amœnitates Academicæ*; and of several extracts from curious memoirs of other naturalists; all relating to the subjects which these works are intended to illustrate. Dº